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## THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT.

THE Queen's Speech reminds us of the programme of a monster concert. It contains everything—and everything else. There is something for lovers of all kinds of political music; and there is, lastly, a heavy piece apparently inserted at the last moment "by special desire." Nothing could be more admirable if time was not limited, and if human powers of endurance were not capable of exhaustion. If we could believe that it was possible to deal with Parliamentary Reform, and to legislate on half a score of other important subjects during the same session, we should be filled with admiration of the Government who had girt up their loins for so Herculean a task. The experience of many previous years, however, forbids us to cherish so agreeable an illusion. Considering how many sessions have been wasted in merely talking about Parliamentary Reform, it is tolerably clear that another session will be taken up in passing an Act upon the subject. We cannot, therefore, help regarding this extreme liberality of legislative promise with considerable suspicion. Her Majesty's Government seem entering into political engagements with very much the same recklessness with which less respectable people give cheques upon a bank where they have no effects. When it is impossible that professions can be seriously meant, one is curious to find out why they are made; and that curiosity is certainly not diminished in the present instance by the rumours which were in circulation previous to the opening of the session with respect to the intentions of the Government. According to some of these stories it was their intention to say nothing at all about Reform, but to offer Parliament in its stead a number of useful measures of a secondary class. We suspect that that report was well founded; that such was at one time the determination of the Cabinet, and that they have only at the last moment adopted another course. The approach of the day in which the House of Commons must be faced has probably composed dissensions which were previously inveterate, and has softened prejudices which would not be amenable to reason. The bitterest enemies make friends when death can only be staved off by a common effort; and the thought of finding themselves in a minority may have reconciled the warring sections of the Cabinet, although the mildly moderating influence of the Earl of Derby failed to effect such a result. That is at any rate a more plausible hypothesis than that the Government having made up their minds for a serious effort to settle the question of Parliamentary Reform, subsequently determined on also taking in hand the various measures which are set down for consideration in the Royal Speech. It is not, however, very profitable to trace the steps by which a Conservative Cabinet have arrived at the conclusion that an extension of the franchise is inevitable. The only thing we really care for is to know how they intend to give effect to what we must in courtesy call their convictions. Upon that point the language which they have put into the mouth of their Royal Mistress is not only far from explicit—it is positively suspicious. While it is said that Bills will be introduced upon a variety of subjects, "the attention of Parliament" is to be called to this. Nor is this all. Parliament is treated to a lecture of a more than slightly impertinent character upon the propriety of conducting their deliberations in a spirit of moderation and mutual forbearance—in other words, in a spirit

consistent with the retention of office by the present Administration—and her Majesty is made to adopt the fashionable theory that the extension of the franchise must be made subservient to the maintenance of the existing balance of political power. It appears to us both inconvenient and unconstitutional to make the Sovereign, even to this extent, the organ of a party; but it is perhaps more important to observe that the language to which we are referring indicates an intention on the part of the Government to adhere to their old policy of taking away with one hand what they give with the other. We presume from the Earl of Derby's speech upon the Address that they have given up the notion of confining themselves to "lateral" extension of the franchise, and that they are prepared—to use a term which was once in high favour amongst them—to "degrade" it. But although the old plan may be dropped, the new one may aim at the same object; and, indeed, if anything positive can be gathered from the Royal Speech, such will be the case.

The debates upon the Address did not throw much further light upon the subject; but so far as they went the addresses both of Lord Derby and of Mr. Disraeli were unfavourable to the notion that the Government have at last made up their minds to treat this great question in a simple and straightforward manner. If ever there was a question which ought to be dealt with on the responsibility of the Ministry this is one. In this way, and in this alone, can we expect to obtain a measure based on definite principles, and thoroughly consistent with itself. We have hitherto been in the habit of thinking that the more important a subject is the more imperative it is upon the Government to take it in hand. But, according to the Premier, the importance of the question is a reason why Government should to some extent—we do not yet exactly know to what extent—throw it loose before Parliament. Because it involves principles which go to the foundation of all parties worthy of the name, it is therefore not to be made the object of party or political strife. Some years ago the late Prince Consort was severely taken to task for saying that representative institutions were on their trial. But if we are to accept Lord Derby's statements and advice, we must come to the conclusion that constitutional practice, as we have hitherto understood it in this country, has broken down. It is no doubt convenient for his lordship to assume that in the present state of parties no Government can hope to carry a Reform Act by their own separate and distinct exertions. But the rest of the world are not obliged to measure the weakness of all possible Administrations by the helplessness of the one which is actually in power; and, for our own part, the only inference we can draw from their confession that they are unable to discharge the functions is, that they should cease to fill the position of a Government. That they hope in some way or other to get rid of a responsibility to which they are unequal is rendered additionally plain by the language of Mr. Disraeli. He is "to bring the whole subject" before the House on Monday next, and he will then—not introduce a Bill—but "state the course which the Government mean to take upon the subject, and generally enter into the matter." It is, of course, impossible to say what mystery may be hidden under these enigmatical words. They are consistent even with the production of a definite measure. But they point more clearly to some scheme for proceeding by resolution; for evading the



enunciation of clear and decided views; for opening the widest scope to intrigues and to sectional combinations; and for splitting up the Liberal majority into fragments, while the Conservative minority is left free to act in solid and united force. Now, if such an attempt be made, there can be no doubt as to the mode in which it ought to be met by all earnest Reformers. We do not desire to import unnecessary acrimony into the debates. We are willing to join with Lord Derby in deprecating the idle and petty recriminations, and the irrelevant historical reminiscences with which Earl Russell had the bad taste to break the harmony of the proceedings of the House of Lords on the first night of the session. We are prepared to follow the excellent example of Mr. Gladstone in allowing bygones to be bygones, in making no irritating or unavailing references to the former debates, and in putting the best possible construction on any measure which the Government may now lay before Parliament. We should certainly prefer that legislation on this subject should be undertaken by those in whom we have more confidence than we can repose in her Majesty's present advisers. But we would willingly forget the past, and make the best of the present, if we could thus secure the settlement of a question which, as the leader of the Opposition well said the other night, "not only disturbs and impedes, but embitters every attempt to deal with other questions of difficulty." It would here be utterly useless, even if it were not objectionable on other grounds, for the Liberals to lend themselves to any mode of procedure which will enable the Government to avoid raising definite issues. It is a good thing to build a bridge for a flying foe; but it is not a good thing to give an enemy the chance of beating you by combining with traitors or half-hearted allies in your own ranks. The scarcely concealed object of the Government is to facilitate the formation of a third party whom the world will probably still continue to call Adullamites, but who will call themselves "moderate men," and to make these political nondescripts the virtual masters of the situation. It is possible that that end may be at least partially attained, so far as the House of Commons and even the present Parliament are concerned, if the mode of proceeding by resolution be permitted. No one who knows anything of the men in whose hands matters will then virtually be left can, however, suppose that they would carry a measure which would satisfy the working classes or set agitation at rest. If they extend the franchise downwards they are certain to complicate matters by a more than countervailing lateral enlargement; if they consent to disfranchise a number of the most indefensible of the nomination boroughs, they will redress the balance in favour of the territorial interests, by adopting one or other of the ingenious plans for this purpose of which we entertain no doubt that Mr. Disraeli has at least half a dozen in his portfolio. If the real and earnest Liberals in the House are too weak to prevent the adoption of a course which is perfectly unprecedented, and which is certain to result in mischievous consequences, there is of course no present help. But we trust that no effort will be spared to avert such a calamity; that decisive measures will be taken to ascertain by a division what Liberals are, what Liberals are not, ready to stand by their party; and that if a chance *mêlée* and a "confusion of tongues" are to be substituted for regular conflict and debate of Parliamentary parties, we shall at least know to whom we must return appropriate thanks for these doubtful blessings.

We have dwelt first, and principally, upon the subject of Parliamentary Reform, because it is the one thing prominent in the public thoughts. But we ought not entirely to pass over either the retrospective portions of the Royal Speech; or the abundant promises of legislation to which we have already referred. So far as the past goes we have no fault to find with the Government. We regret with them that their efforts to bring about a reconciliation between Spain and the republics of Chili and Peru, have proved unsuccessful. We approve equally of their having abstained from interference in the Cretan insurrection, and of their now using their good offices to bring about improved relations between the Porte and its Christian subjects. And we are quite willing to hope that the difficulties connected with the Danubian Principalities have been happily settled by the recognition of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern as Hospodar. The announcement that propositions have been made to the United States, which it is hoped may result in the amicable settlement of questions arising out of the civil war; that the delegates of our various North American colonies have agreed upon a scheme of confederation; and that the Habeas Corpus Act is no longer to be suspended in Ireland—fill us with lively satisfaction. We should probably entertain something approaching to the same feeling in regard to the brilliant panorama of projects which is spread before us in the latter part of the Speech, if we would

for a moment believe that it was more substantial than a mirage of the desert. But we know that if anything serious is to be done with Reform, the promising young Bills, whose impending births are announced in the Royal Speech, will never arrive at the age of maturity; and what is more we feel a strong conviction that several of the subjects to which they relate, will never be satisfactorily dealt with until Parliament assumes a more popular character. After the discussions of the last session, the most sanguine men, for instance, hardly expect that the Irish land question can be set at rest so long as the territorial class remain supreme in the House of Commons. For both these reasons we have therefore no disposition to comment upon the list of parliamentary *agenda* for the present session. If any useful measures are introduced and passed we shall be ready to welcome and accept them. But their progress must not be allowed to interfere with the fulfilment by the Legislature of its first and paramount duty—that of passing such a measure of reform as will meet the fair and reasonable expectations of the people, will increase moderately but substantially the power of the working classes in the State, and will not only set agitation at rest, but infuse new vigour and energy into the national councils.

#### ENGLISH AND IRISH REFORMERS.

AFTER many efforts to bring about a consolidation between the English and Irish Liberals, the late Joseph Hume declared that he had given the matter up in despair of ever seeing it accomplished. Mr. Bright is more hopeful. Three months ago he visited Dublin, was fêted, and made speeches there, and he tells us that he has reason to hope that his labours were not wholly fruitless. Manchester last week repaid to The O'Donoghue the honour which Dublin had conferred on Mr. Bright. Its Reformers assembled in the Free Trade Hall to present an address to, and listen to a speech from, the Irish Liberal. But the speech was not to be merely a speech. Manchester welcomed in The O'Donoghue the representative on the part of Ireland of a union between the Reformers of the United Kingdom. It recognised in the want of such union the reason why there has been a postponement of justice alike to the English and the Irish people, and its Reformers came prepared to hear from his lips that, as far as he was entitled to speak for them, the Irish Liberals are ready to unite with those of England to obtain from Parliament whatever concessions they severally need. Nothing could be more successful than the meeting as far as it went. England was there, and Ireland; and that nothing might be wanting to complete the sodality of the three countries, Scotland put in an appearance in the shape of a letter from the Scottish National Reform League, wishing the union movement "God's speed." In the present state of the Liberal party, any increase of strength is to be rejoiced at, especially one which may help to accomplish what is so desirable in the relations between this country and Ireland—oneness of interest, feeling, and action. The countries are one by Act of Parliament. Their union is indissoluble. But it has not been happy, nor will it ever be so until ameliorations, similar to those which have contented the well-to-do Irishman, have been brought to bear on the condition of the million. If the Liberals of both countries can be brought to act together, as the Conservatives do, this may be done. What is proposed, as the first step to legislation, is a reformed Parliament, which will aim directly at the good of the million, of course without sacrificing the legitimate interests of the middle and upper classes. There is ample room for such legislation in both countries, but we speak now more particularly of Ireland. It is time that what Mr. Bright calls "the sovereign remedy of justice" should be applied to her wounds. It is not to be supposed that amongst so warm-hearted a people there should exist the disaffection of which we have lately had such convincing evidence, if a serious effort, and one adequate to the great need of the country, were made to conciliate them. We fully believe The O'Donoghue when he says that no antipathy exists in Ireland either to Englishmen or to Protestantism purely as such, and that no Englishman who settles in Ireland is unpopular who does not owe his unpopularity to some encroachment on the rights of others, which would have made him unpopular anywhere. Why, then, is the English Government detested, unless because the people identify it with the injustice under which they suffer? There have, however, been signs of late years that statesmen on both sides of the House, if they could reckon on the support of Parliament, are not indisposed to redress the grievances of Ireland. There have, indeed, been almost as many attempts to deal with the tenant-right question there, as



there have been to deal with the Reform question here, and both questions figure in the speech with which her Majesty this week opened Parliament. What is wanted is a more liberal House of Commons than we possess, and that can only be obtained through Reform, to which the union of Irish with English Liberals is now more than ever necessary.

But, we confess, we have our doubts whether such a combination of forces as Mr. Bright and The O'Donoghue propose can be easily accomplished. Between Irish and English Liberals there is a difference, rather of habit than of essence we admit, but still sufficient to stand in the way of cordial co-operation. The cardinal point in the creed of an English Liberal is parliamentary reform. If he is a moderate reformer he goes in for an extension of the suffrage and a redistribution of seats. If he belongs to the extreme party he aims at the ballot, manhood suffrage, and equal electoral districts. In Ireland there is not much of this desire for reform. The distinguishing mark there of a Liberal M.P. is that he will support the Whig Government, and vote against the Tories. That is enough for his constituents. They have been accustomed to take to other means than reform for a redress of grievances. They have tried rebellion, repeal, Fenianism. Their hope has ever been that one day or other would see them quit of England for ever; and whether it might be possible by constitutional action to better their position in the mean time they have not seriously considered. What has been done for them in the way of legislation has been the work of such a leader as O'Connell, or has been the prompting of the priesthood and the more enlightened amongst the laity, or, as in the case of the Encumbered Estates Act, has been forced upon the Legislature by a great disaster. They have regarded their position under the constitution as a man regards a house which he is about to quit, and which he has no interest in painting, papering, and repairing. If life in Ireland became at any time intolerable a few weeks' sail would transfer as many as chose to emigrate to a land flowing with milk and honey, and where already was a new Irish nation almost equal in point of numbers to the old, and far surpassing it in prosperity and in political and social status. What was parliamentary reform to them, or what is it now? Fenianism is for the moment suppressed, but it only smoulders. The fiasco of last year, the collapse of the Head Centre, the exposure of his malversation of the common funds, might have shaken the faith of any other people. But the credulity of the Irish peasant is elastic beyond limit. If President Johnson should not land a hundred thousand fighting men in Ireland next summer to set up the Irish Republic, perhaps he will the summer after? And if this state of mind on the part of the people is unfavourable to the union of Irish Liberals with English, the idiosyncracies of the Irish M.P. will not mend the matter. He is a dissenter by nature, and will have his own way if he can—all the better pleased if nobody else agrees with him. Then, as a rule, his first thought is not to serve his country, but to sell it. He must get on in the world, and having generally nothing of his own, he takes his constituencies into the market, and puts them up to the highest bidder. The temptation, it must be admitted, is strong. Patriotism is either the virtue of the poor, or their refuge. But, however they may be deficient in the goods of this life, Irishmen are more than other men gifted with the *copia verborum* out of which, if the true patriotic flavour be added, a very comfortable living may be made. It has obtained commissionerships, judgeships, lucrative places of all sorts for men who, without it, would have been serving at the counters of the worthy tradesmen from whose loins they sprung. But it has done this through a seat in Parliament. And now, when The O'Donoghue agitates for united action, when he asks the individual M.P. to forget himself, to think only of his country, and to join hands with those English Liberals, who will help him to renew the face of his native land, such a proposition is enough to make his hair stand on end. Of what use will he be to the Prime Minister, or the Prime Minister to him, if he binds himself to act with an independent party, and one which has nothing to give? How is the ambition of the youth of Ireland to be stimulated if it is shut out from all chance of a Government prize? or who will incur the risks and sacrifices of patriotism, if he is to be debarred from all participation in its rewards?

But in spite of these objections, it is to be hoped that the efforts of Mr. Bright and The O'Donoghue will not be wholly fruitless. If the condition of the Irish people in Ireland is susceptible of improvement, it can only be accomplished by constitutional means, and the more the Conservative element in Parliament, which to the sister country means the Orange element, is lessened, the more probable will such improvement

become. From the House of Commons as it is now elected our hopes are of the scantiest description. Yet it is not less important for England than for Ireland that the experiment should at once be tried of governing the sister country by other means than Coercion Bills, suspension of Habeas Corpus, and military occupation. And it is idle to say that the Irish people have no grievances to complain of. The days of the penal laws, it is true, are over. But there remains a law, penal in character if not in name, by which even tenants who are both willing and able to pay, may be doomed to see their houses levelled to the ground, and themselves and their families turned out upon the road-side. Of 600,000 persons occupying land as tenants, 580,000, representing a population of 3,000,000, are subject to this uncertainty. They are wholly dependent upon the soil, yet they have no security for the possession of their farms, and no right to compensation for any improvement they may make upon them. Such a state of the law would be sufficient to convert the most loyal people into a disloyal one, even without the hatred of English rule which the peasantry of to-day have inherited from fathers who had no reason to love it. Then there is the Established Church, which has been a consenting party to all the misgovernment of Ireland in past times; which has utterly failed in its character as a missionary Church; which is an oppression, even were it only a sentimental one, to the people, an insurmountable obstacle to the diffusion of Protestantism, and a scandal in the eyes of all just men. If a union between the Reformers of Ireland and Great Britain could effect the removal of these main sources of disaffection, we know not whether this or the sister country would have most reason to rejoice at the result. We believe with Mr. Bright, that we might then throw open the prison doors in Ireland, and let every political prisoner free, and "trust the right of the cause of this kingdom with an unfaltering faith to that sense of loyalty which would be begun by the magnanimous justice of the Imperial Parliament."

#### MR. MILL ON EDUCATION.

MR. MILL's Inaugural Address at St. Andrews will remind most people, if only by its contrast, of Carlyle's address on a similar occasion, about a year since, to the University of Edinburgh. No two speeches could be more different. Carlyle's was, like his writings, full of vague, windy generalities, Mill's is closely reasoned, and stamped with weighty thought. In short, the speeches are characteristic of their authors. Carlyle appeals to our emotions, Mill to our intellects and our feelings. With Carlyle, words become a mere cloud, which darkens his meaning; with Mill, light. And as is their style, so is their matter. Carlyle is always stirring us up with a vague desire of doing something, but Mill tells us what to do. We should be very sorry to speak with contempt of Mr. Carlyle, but it is a duty, when summing up the merits of the leaders of two opposite schools, to speak with truth. But the value of their doctrines may be best seen by the fruits which they have borne. Mill has raised up a school of philosophy, the soundness of which may be best seen in the vain attempts made to overthrow it, whilst the results of Carlyle's doctrines may be tested by the recent speeches and writings of his followers, Professor Kingsley and Mr. Ruskin, the former of whom has lately promulgated the transcendental dogma that we are to "take things upon trust," and the latter the ideal gospel of political economy, that war will cease by our wives and daughters putting on crape. Carlyle's is, in fact, the philosophy of sentimentality, Mill's that of reason. Mill's crowning glory lies in the fact that he has subordinated the love of order to the love of action, whilst Carlyle and his followers have degraded the latter into the mere worship of brute strength. Further even, on Mr. Carlyle's chosen ground of the feelings, Mill is the wiser teacher. His essay upon Poetry and its Varieties, and that upon Alfred de Vigny, go deeper into the criticism of æsthetic science than all the transcendentalism that Carlyle and Ruskin have ever written.

And it is precisely this wide range of knowledge that gives such value to everything that Mill says. In his own person he has carried out the wise proverb, "to know something of everything, but everything of something." Hence, in his address at St. Andrews, we find such a large catholicity of taste, which will, perhaps, grate upon smaller minds. The defender of mere classical education will find no ally in Mill, nor the admirer of mere scientific culture, a partisan. His object is to make a cube, and not a three-sided form. From the same cause he so emphatically dwells upon the vastness of such a subject as education. It comprehends, as he says, not merely what we do for ourselves, or what is done for us, but even the



indirect effects produced by physical facts, over which we have no control, as climate and soil. In short, education means nothing less than the study of human nature, and the laws of the universe. It deals not merely with facts, but with causes; not merely with human acts, but with human impulses.

We have plenty of works and treatises upon education, but most of them support some crotchet, and never deal with it as a system. More than thirty years have passed since Mill asked the question—"For what end above all others do endowed universities exist, or ought to exist?" and gave for his answer—"To keep alive philosophy." And his speech at St. Andrews last week is the true commentary upon that answer. But before we proceed to dwell upon the general merits of the speech, for into details it is impossible to go, let us notice what appear to us certain errors, slight indeed, and not at all affecting the main argument, but still calculated to convey false impressions. The comparison between English and Scotch Universities appears to us one-sided. Thus Mr. Mill says—"Youths come to the Scottish Universities ignorant, and are there taught. The majority of those who come to the English Universities come still more ignorant, and ignorant they go away." Certainly this is not a true description of the character of the generality of freshmen who come up to Oxford. The matriculation examination at the best colleges is a safeguard against any very gross ignorance. Nor, again, is it fair to select Westminster and Eton as the representative types of English schools. The great merits of Shrewsbury, Cheltenham, and especially Marlborough, should not have been passed over in silence. Further, it is most unjust to say, as in the case of the Universities, that the Scotch schools teach Latin and Greek better than English. We can only point to the fruits produced by the respective schools and Universities in England, to the lexicons, such as Gaisford and Liddell and Scott, to the great editions of the classics, and to names like Bentley and Porson, against all which Scotland can show but a scanty list. At this very moment is being published the "Bibliotheca Classica," edited by Oxford and Cambridge men, to which the Scotch Universities can show no parallel. Further, in religion the English Universities, for good or for evil, have of late been the centres of all action and reaction. Oxford gave us the Puseyite movement. The Colenso criticism and that of the author of "Ecce Homo" spring from Cambridge. The school of Essayists and Reviewers arose at Oxford. Far different has it been at the Scotch Universities. The movement which split the Scotch Church in two was national, and owed none of its true force to the Universities. Of Biblical criticism, in the real meaning of the word criticism, there is none, for very obvious reasons, in Scotland. But if any one wishes to contrast the results of the two systems, let him compare the series of Oxford and Cambridge essays with the only volume which Edinburgh University was able to produce. The culture and the criticism in the two first will, we think, be apparent to every one, in contrast to the mere emotional element and absolute rawness of thought displayed in the latter.

Besides these small matters we have one or two more objections to make. Has Mr. Mill ever tried the system which he advocates for learning Latin or Greek? We must say that we should like to know the results of some experiments before we pronounced so decidedly in favour of the scheme as he does. No one would welcome any scheme that would save the fearful waste of time in our short, uncertain life more than we should. This uncertainty lames action, and this shortness dwarfs our aims. It is still as true as ever:—

"Could a man be secure  
That his days would endure  
As of old, for a thousand years,  
What things might he know,  
What deeds might he do,  
And all without hurry or care."

And therefore should we gladly welcome any method that would save time; but, unfortunately, experience teaches us that what is learnt quickly is too often as quickly forgotten. Again, we must take exception to some of Mr. Mill's criticisms on the classics. It may be thought hypercritical—but when Mr. Mill speaks we weigh every word—but we must object to classing Latin and Greek authors together. The purity and grace of style, the weight of thought, of the two nations, will not bear to be mentioned in the same sentence. But our principal objection is to the comparison of English literature with that of Greece and Rome. Our literature has not yet reached its meridian, and therefore the comparison is not quite fair. We are entering even now into a new literary era, and we may hope that our treatment of philosophy will be as superior to their's as Mr. Mill allows modern poetry to be deeper than any the

Greeks and Romans ever dreamt. And as to style, we are paying Mr. Mill no barren compliment, but simply a tribute of just praise, when we say that ancient philosophers might in many instances have with profit studied him. For the rest of the address we have nothing but praise. Here and there, as in the question of science, we think that Mr. Mill has scarcely brought out certain points strongly enough, and are more inclined to go with Mr. Herbert Spencer in the eloquent conclusion to his first chapter in his work on "Education." Further we wish that Mr. Mill had spoken plainer, more especially when addressing the most priest-ridden country in Europe after Spain, upon the duty of all those who having been once admitted into the ranks of the Church, find its formulæ incompatible with other teachings. As the passage stands it is, perhaps, open to the charge of casuistry. We will now add a few words about the general character of the address. So thoroughly are we impressed with the necessity of education—in Mr. Mill's wide sense of the term—that we would say that the source of all evil is ignorance, or as Shakespeare writes, "Ignorance is God's curse." Human ignorance and human misery are nearly synonymous. And when we remember that history is a progressive chain of causes and effects, we see further the absolute necessity of that education, which shall vitalise human actions. And this is precisely what the common education does not do. "*Savoir par cœur n'est pas savoir*." Yet this is the ordinary teaching. With Mr. Mill on the other hand, the end of all education is really to free men from the yoke of authority. With him the studies of mathematics, of modern or dead languages, are only instruments to give us the habits of analysis and abstraction—to prepare us for a higher culture; in short, to make us think for ourselves, which, as it is the highest duty, is the hardest task in the world. We cannot possibly follow Mr. Mill in all his illustrations. The difficulty that we foresee is *quis docebit doctores?* But time here comes to our aid. In the meanwhile it will be the duty of all those who have at heart the interests of real education to propagate Mr. Mill's opinions. We have already made some comments on Mr. Mill's method of learning the dead languages, let us therefore add how thoroughly we agree in his condemnation of the present system of teaching boys to write Latin and Greek verses. Even if the boy possesses the natural ability—which not one in twenty does—the fault in our eyes is that verse-making sets manner above matter, and style above ideas. Admirable, too, are his remarks upon politics, which, when considered in their largest sense, are the world's ethics. And here the value of education, in Mr. Mill's wide sense of the term, may be tested; for, as he says, "what we require to be taught on politics is to be our own teachers;" and in his conclusion he comes back to the saying of Plato—that the punishment of good men for not cultivating politics is to be governed by the bad. Equally pregnant are his remarks on religion. Finally, many readers will be surprised to find with what enthusiasm and with what poetry he describes the education of the feelings, and the cultivation of the beautiful. Those, however, who most know his writings will feel the least surprise. They will remember passages in which his love for poetry, and passion for scenery—for the "*divini gloria ruris*"—break forth. In this way he goes through the whole range of the materials and training which a university and school ought to supply. We have, from sheer want of space, but alluded to one or two points. And now we must conclude by adding, in his own words, that the end from which our studies should take their chief value, is "to make us more effective combatants in the great fight which never ceases to rage between good and evil."

#### UNIVERSITY COLLEGE AND THE FAILURE OF "SLASHING" ARTICLES.

THE intrigues and clamour raised against the Council of University College for having declined to appoint the Rev. James Martineau to the metaphysical chair, have been finally and satisfactorily dispelled by the action of the Court of Proprietors on Saturday last. Our readers will recollect both the facts out of which the disagreeable dispute arose and the view which we took in the discussion of the question. In spite of the wordy assurances of the small cliques, to whom we owe the painful and unseemly attack upon as liberal and honourable a body as has ever presided over an academical institution, we never for a moment doubted that the proprietors of the College would support their Council. And the event has justified our anticipations. By a majority of forty-two to thirty-seven the special court summoned for Saturday last



rejected a series of resolutions, in effect conveying a vote of censure upon the Council, proposed and seconded by Mr. R. H. Hutton and Mr. Bagehot, who were, in the journals which they so ably conduct, the most acrimonious critics of the course adopted by the governing body, and the most extravagant advocates of Mr. Martineau's claims to the professorship lately vacant. Since, for a variety of reasons, we gave our adhesion throughout to the action of the Council in rejecting Mr. Martineau, we have of course much satisfaction in recording this result, which we believe to be not only strictly accordant with the immediate and material interests of the College, but altogether consonant with the great principles of religious neutrality, union of sects, and secular education upon which it was founded. We confess, too, that we are not entirely displeased that facts have falsified the predictions and rebuked the arrogance of those who endeavoured to construe Mr. Martineau's rejection into an act of "second-hand bigotry" and mean subservience to the orthodox Mrs. Grundy. For, believing these representations to be baseless and unwarrantable, we asked the public to repel them as they deserved, and we should have greatly regretted to have seen them endorsed by the proprietors of University College. Notwithstanding the large Unitarian element in the proprietary body and the influence of some who took a most active part in the cabal against the Council, common sense and justice prevailed. If Mr. Martineau had not been backed by his co-religionists—who, however liberal in profession, retain, as do most sects, an unquestionable and not unnatural *esprit de corps*—his case as against the Council would have received no support whatever in the special court. Even as it was, the expression of opinion indicated by the division on Mr. Hutton's motion was sufficiently distinct and significant.

Three issues were raised by the resolutions submitted to the meeting of Proprietors, each of which by itself involved more than one fallacy and several errors in fact. By the first an attempt was made to pledge the Court to the principle that it should be no disqualification to a candidate for a professorship in the College that he was eminent as a religious minister; the second resolution, assuming as a fact that Mr. Martineau was rejected chiefly for holding such a position, censured the Council for taking this as an objection to his candidature. We may remark, in passing, that the assumption with respect to the cause of the hesitation to appoint Mr. Martineau is quite gratuitous. It has never been put forward on authority, and, as a matter of fact, Mr. Grote's motion in the Council, which alone gives it a colour of truth, was lost. This trifling with facts, however, is slight compared with the distortions of truth that were resorted to while the paper war on the subject raged; and it is, indeed, somewhat amusing to note the more modest tone, both of blame and praise, to which the assailants of the Council lowered their voices in descending from the freer, securer arena of journalism to the business-like accuracy of the Proprietors' Court. But if we turn from the implied facts to the principles involved, we perceive at once the logical trap in which Mr. Martineau's supporters had got themselves ensnared, and into which the Proprietors wisely declined to follow them. Without desiring to repeat again the reasoning by which we originally supported the decision of the Council, we may glance at the consequences to which these propositions advanced by Mr. Hutton and his party would lead. They proceed altogether on a misconception of the neutrality between sects to which the College aspires.

That neutrality concerns the students mainly, and being secured as regards these, the religious opinions of the professors are of little moment. But to insure neutrality it will not wholly suffice to make the course of instruction as secular as possible; the confidence of parents in the absolute freedom of the teaching imparted from sectarian influences must be established, and that can only be done by making the teachers secular also. Every one knows that a determined proselytiser would set on foot a machinery of perversion in the most uncongenial soil; but Mr. Hutton's resolutions would give such a man—or, as Professor Key suggested, a body of Jesuits—an opportunity of creeping into the College, in virtue of his eminence in some branch of science. Is this, then, a proper contingency to be risked by the enforcement of an abstract rule, which, after all, does not concern those for whose benefit the College is intended, but merely a limited number of learned men? Will it be seriously urged by its advocates that the Council shall have no power to take any extraneous merit or demerit into consideration beyond learning and teaching power? If so, would the interests of the College be advanced by the election to a Chair of a man of bad moral character? Yet this is the logical deduction of the premises on which Mr. Martineau's friends ground their motion. But further, if the Council cannot go

beyond the limits of inquiry prescribed to the Senate, why should not the Senate's report end the election? Why should there be left any right of choice to the Council? Why should not the body of professors "co-opt"? We presume these developments of the principles embodied in the resolutions would not be altogether palatable to those who assail the Council. They would certainly not please the public.

The third resolution relates to the conduct of the Council in proceeding to the election of a professor without waiting to learn the decision of the Special Court of Proprietors, which had been legally applied for by the requisite number of Fellows and others. The charge implied in this very ill-considered proposition was completely refuted by the Council, in a dignified and courteous letter to the Chairman of the Special Court. The members of the Council in this document remark, that in them is vested by the Charter an absolute power of election; that the body of Proprietors have no authority to direct or to alter the decisions of the Council,—they may indeed, review them, and enact bye-laws to be observed on future occasions, but, except the moral right to pronounce approval or disapproval of the Council's choice, the Proprietors had, in the case of the Chair of Metaphysics, no claim whatever to interfere. Nor was there any other reason why the governing body should delay the election at the bidding of a little knot of intriguers. In the first instance, when Mr. Martineau had been pronounced by the Senate the most eligible candidate in point of experience and scholarship, and when the combination of objections to his election—his eminence as a minister, his age, and his mysticism—determined a postponement of the decision, Mr. George Croom Robertson stood second only to Mr. Martineau, and was pronounced in the report to be, next to the older candidate, "the ablest, the most learned, and the most likely to rise to eminence, and to raise the reputation of the College." Mr. Grote, we believe, was a strong supporter of this gentleman. He presented letters-testimonial of the most laudatory kind from Mr. Mill and Professor Bain, and other able metaphysicians. But more than this, in the interval of postponement granted by the Council, he had obtained certificates of high merit from the most distinguished philosophers of every school of the Continent, and particularly of Germany, where he had studied after terminating his College career, and before assuming the duties of sub-professor at Aberdeen. In the mean time while Mr. Robertson's qualifications had thus been reinforced, Mr. Martineau's rested unchanged, and even setting religious difficulties aside, it was not quite apparent that there was a very great preponderance of merit on the side of the latter candidate. For if Mr. Martineau's friends push us to a distinct estimate of that gentleman's rank as a philosopher, we ask, What has he done? How has he proved his capacity? Why, he has written some clever essays, and has lectured with success to the handful of students who attend Manchester New College. Are these such overwhelming claims? He has written no standard philosophical work; he has shown no originality in speculation; he has been, in short, an able critic of other men's work, and no more. This we do not assert in any spirit of fault-finding; it is not given to every man to be a Hamilton or a Mill, and no one can add at will a cubit to his mental any more than to his bodily stature. But we are somewhat disgusted when men pull their neighbours by the sleeve, and pointing to some man of middle height shout, "Look at the Giant!" These conclusions are now pretty generally acknowledged to be true, and the superiority of Mr. Martineau in ability to his younger competitor is no longer so confidently insisted upon. Then there comes the further question of age. Mr. Martineau is in the view of some too old; Mr. Robertson, too young. Indeed, the charge brought by Walpole against Pitt, "the atrocious crime of being a young man," has, with equal "spirit and decency," been urged against the newly-appointed Professor, who, so far as we are aware, has not attempted "to palliate or deny it." And Professor Key has remarked that both Victor Cousin and Mr. De Morgan were younger than the new Professor of Metaphysics when they entered upon the duties of the chairs which they made famous. At all events, it seems that neither Mr. Robertson's youth, nor his adherence to that "ganglionic school" which is apparently so distasteful in the assumed head-quarters of "thought," are likely to diminish his influence as a teacher. He has already won a large measure of success, and has in him, in the opinion of competent critics, the elements of an original thinker and an efficient philosophical teacher. Sympathizing deeply with him for the most unpleasant position in which the lately exploded cabal must have placed him, we heartily wish him and the College that has chosen him a brilliant future.



## MR. BERESFORD HOPE ABROAD.

THE new and popular sport of Bright-baiting has again commenced. Hitherto the baiters have had the worst of the amusement. Mr. Danby Seymour's head suffered considerably in his late encounter, whilst poor Mr. Garth was so mauled that his oldest friends could not recognise him. But down at Gouldhurst, the Blest, at the dinner of its Agricultural Association, Mr. Beresford Hope, unmindful of the fate of his friends, recommenced the dangerous sport. And we must give Mr. Beresford Hope the credit of carefully preparing himself for the occasion. He came armed with the most glowing patriotism and the finest Billingsgate. He fully carried out Mr. Disraeli's idea of oratory—that invective is the ornament of speech. His speech, in fact, was the speech of the thorough old Tory squire. He went back to the good old time when the cry was Monarchy and Port-wine. If you don't like England, then leave it, was Mr. Beresford Hope's moral. *Vox populi, vox diaboli* was his creed. England was, according to him, the model of all that is good in the shape of government. Here, as he eloquently said, we enjoy "freedom to marry, freedom to make our wills, freedom to travel, freedom to worship God as we like." His notion, however, of freedom in the latter case he excellently illustrated by trying to excite prejudice against Mr. Bright by denouncing him as a Quaker. Like the *Times* itself, Mr. Beresford Hope was all bully and bluster. His patriotism was parochial, but his hatred was world-wide. The former consisted of tall talk about our "good old Parliaments," "our happy land," and "Old England," which have about as much meaning as "a merry Christmas and a happy new year" inside a cracker. The latter was more sincere, and consisted of a hit at America—apparently because it possesses more land than England—and denunciations of the French Revolution, and France, and the French Emperor, and the French nation, and Mr. Bright, and the English working classes, who are denominated "the hordes." This was pretty well for one speech.

Mr. Beresford Hope enforces his love for his country by showing his hatred of his neighbour. But it is upon Mr. Bright that his anathemas are concentrated. Mr. Bright is "the national enemy;" "the blustering, foul-mouthed Quaker from Rochdale." You may train a horse till he cannot move. And Mr. Beresford Hope has evidently been training himself in sarcasm till he can't even speak. Most people would reply, If Mr. Bright is the diabolical monster which he is represented, what need is there of vituperation? We require not nicknames, but proof. Again, vituperation, like indecency, betrays a want of common sense. We sympathize with the person who is assailed rather than with his assailer. And so, Mr. Beresford Hope's vituperations will probably do more to raise Mr. Bright in public opinion than the most laboured encomiums of his friends. Further, general accusations are perfectly useless. "*Dolus latet in generalibus*" is true not only in law, but in life. To call a man "a national enemy" is most effectually to say nothing. It does not possess the wit which sometimes makes abuse stick. To call, however, a man "a blustering, foul-mouthed Quaker" is to libel your own intelligence. It is like spitting against the wind; you then and there suffer the penalty of a disgusting habit on your own person.

And what is the ground of all this abuse against Mr. Bright? Simply that he pointed out the enormous difficulty there would be in obtaining a fair discussion on the state of the land-laws in the House of Commons. We do not know when the speech to which Mr. Beresford Hope refers was made; but Mr. Bright probably remembered the spirit in which Sir Baldwin Leighton's Night Poaching Act and the Cattle Plague Bill, and other Bills in which the squires have an interest, were discussed. But is Mr. Beresford Hope aware that the present system of land tenure is widely questioned? Mr. Bright does not stand alone. One school, which is largely increasing, would assimilate real and personal property. The other school, which is still more advanced, denies the right of any personal ownership in land. Compared to such political economists, Mr. Bright is a Conservative. Even those who would hesitate to join Mr. Bright, and much more, either of the two other schools, still see the great difficulties that are fast coming upon us through the present system. Every year the land is getting into fewer and fewer hands, and the consequences must sooner or later be felt. But Mr. Beresford Hope falls into the utmost confusion of thought in the matter. Thus, in the report before us he is represented as saying, "But people say—'Just alter the law a bit, and let a man's land be cut up if he chooses without a will.'" Now, nobody says anything of the kind. Probably Mr. Beresford Hope meant to say, if he chooses to die without a will, which is a very different matter. Again,

Mr. Beresford Hope is represented as saying—"Perhaps a minor dies, the last heir of a grand old property, which he cannot leave by will because he is not of age, and thus, in spite of himself, the property has to be cut up." Here Mr. Beresford Hope begs the question, and goes upon the assumption that the minor would be in favour of primogeniture. Again, if we are to have appeals made to our feelings about "grand old properties," and so forth, we had much better at once turn the matter over to such sentimental political economists as Professor Kingsley and Mr. Ruskin, and let them draw up for us a new code of land tenure. The well-known sympathies of the former with William of Normandy might lead to some curious results. As for "grand old properties," Mr. Beresford Hope had better study Mr. Shirley's "Noble and Gentle Men of England," and learn by the omissions there what has become of some of them and their lands. Again, too, when Mr. Beresford Hope draws the general conclusions that a change in our land-laws would bring the same ills upon us that the land-system—if it has done so—has brought upon the French peasantry, he is falling into the same error that the opponents of the first French revolution did. Whatever evils may fall upon us—for we will for the moment grant him his general conclusion—they will be, considering the difference of race, of climate, insular position, and other physical facts, of a very different kind to those on the other side of the Channel. Mr. Beresford Hope is arguing from a false analogy. But the great error which pervades Mr. Hope's speech is the error that must pervade all Conservative speeches, when they touch upon social or political Reform. He fails to see that we are at the present moment in a transitional state. He upholds his own class, forgetting that his own class is not in the same position that it was two centuries ago. His ears are deaf to what are now the commonplaces of all Reformers,—that the aristocracy of England is one of privilege alone. As men often sleep soundest during a storm, so does Mr. Beresford Hope dream pleasant dreams in the political tempest. And this, further, is the great misfortune of all Tories, for which after all they are much to be pitied,—that they are always born fifty years too late. They are living anachronisms. When turnpike roads were first made, they were for the old British trackways. When canals were projected, they cried out—Great are the turnpikes! When railways were invented, they wanted to know what would become of the lock-keepers! And when anything supersedes railways, they will pour out their souls in sympathy for the broken-down locomotives! In short, whatever concerns the real interests of the day they hate. Thus, take Mr. Beresford Hope's speech. He tells us we have "freedom to marry." Yes, but who opposed that freedom with all their might? His own class. He tells us we have freedom to travel. Yes, but who opposed railways with the bitterest opposition? His own class. He tells us that we have freedom to worship God as we like. Who opposed and still opposes the Dissenters? His own class. Who, on the other hand, fought for and gave us what political and social blessings we enjoy? Certainly not his class. And this brings us back at last to the main subject of his tirade. As Mr. Beresford Hope began his speech so he ends it, reviling Mr. Bright. In short, Mr. Bright is regarded by him as by other Tories as a kind of political Siva against whom anything may be said. We have never seen it publicly stated, but we feel sure that Mr. Bright is looked upon by all good Tories as the cause of the cattle plague and the potato disease, and the late accident in the Regent's Park. Tory newspapers and Tory members vie with each other in abuse of him. And we must say that we consider it a very great omission that there was not a special paragraph in the Queen's Speech abusing the member for Birmingham. Such a paragraph would have most assuredly been received by Conservative cheers. As matters went, however, Mr. Bright himself was received with cheers, which form, perhaps, the best answer to Mr. Beresford Hope's wild charge of his being "the national enemy."

## A LUNATIC SERVANT.

THERE is so much reason to regard with suspicion the confinement of alleged lunatics, that we do not wonder at the amount of public attention which has been excited by the case of Kearns v. Storks. Moreover, the trial had other elements of interest which fairly entitled it to come under the description of "sensational." The father of the defendant was, at the time of his death, one of the most venerable members of the British bar; the brother of the defendant, one of the most distinguished officers in her Majesty's service, has lately rendered conspicuous public services. And although there is no doubt that, to a



highly philosophic mind, these circumstances are wholly immaterial, still it is a fact that the mass of mankind look very differently upon a dispute between some obscure Smith and Jones, and upon one in which names well known to them are mixed up. Nor is that all. The incarceration of the plaintiff was supposed to be connected in some way or other with the making of a will, by which two out of three surviving children of the late Serjeant Storks were virtually disinherited, and that, as the most moderate novel reader well knows, brings us at once upon one of the most favourite hunting-grounds of startling fiction. If anything were wanting to pile up the interest to the highest point, it was supplied by the fact that this very will had, on account of its brevity and clearness, "gone the round of the papers," and on account of its exceptional character the public were, therefore, well prepared to believe that there had been something exceptional about its execution. There was in truth more than a *souffron*—a distinct flavour of family scandal about the whole affair; and nothing is after all dearer than scandal to the well-regulated and respectable British mind. We are sorry to say that so natural, even if it be scarcely a commendable, taste was balked of its full gratification by the premature close of the trial, and that our countrymen and countrywomen were deprived of the pleasure of contemplating for two or three days more the skeleton in the Storks' household. Enough, however, transpired to show that the learned counsel on both sides acted with great wisdom and discretion in settling it by a compromise; and we fear we must add that enough was also elicited to reduce the case to very commonplace proportions. There does not appear to be the slightest reason to connect the confinement of the plaintiff with the execution of the will in question. And whatever differences may have unfortunately taken place in the family of the defendant, there is not a scintilla of evidence to show that he had anything to gain by imprisoning the plaintiff. So far as the will goes it is, indeed, plain that the plaintiff was under a complete delusion with respect to it, for while she describes herself in one of her letters as "the only witness," it was proved that she was not a witness at all, but that one of the witnesses was the late Mr. Butterworth, the eminent law publisher, in whose presence nothing like fraud or undue influence was at all likely to be practised. Indeed, the date of the instrument is almost sufficient to relieve the defendant from any insinuation on this score, because it turned out that it was signed in 1859, at a time when we must presume the learned serjeant to have been in full possession of his faculties, seeing that he was allowed to sit as a county court judge for some time afterwards. It is, indeed, more than hinted that at the time the plaintiff was sent to the lunatic asylum, in June, 1865, the testator was in an imbecile condition; but if that were so, then it would only tend in the strongest manner to show that the defendant could have had no possible reason for getting rid of her, seeing that under those circumstances no valid revocation could take place. Although, therefore, the case was at first surrounded by a certain atmosphere of suspicion, this was entirely dispelled before it closed. Nor should we do justice to the defendant if we did not mention as a circumstance which largely contributed to this result, that he refused, in the most decided manner, to consent to any compromise which would prevent the charge brought against him being inquired into in open court. It is also an important fact in the case that although the defendant's brother and sister may be reasonably supposed to have been somewhat dissatisfied with their father's will, they have taken no steps to dispute it, and it must therefore be taken to have been, in every respect, a good and valid document.

Reduced to its actual dimensions the case is simply that of a woman, with a temper originally violent, and growing still more violent as she advanced in life, at last giving way to conduct which, if it did not actually amount to insanity, looked very like it; and being then confined in a *maison de santé*, possibly with some hastiness, but certainly with entire *bona fides*. The short facts as they came out on the trial are these. The plaintiff, who is now about fifty-seven years of age, was a native of Tuam, in Ireland, where her family still resides; but for many years previous to her confinement she had been a servant in the family of Serjeant Storks, first as cook, then as housekeeper, and, lastly, as nurse to her aged master. The family, i. e., the old man and his son, the defendant, lived together, originally in London, then in Boulogne, and since 1863 in Paris. It seems that from time to time disagreements took place between the defendant and the plaintiff, but in the month of May, 1865, they were shown to have been on very good terms. In the following month, however, Mrs. Kearns quarrelled with one of her fellow servants, and threatened to leave in con-

sequence of Mr. Storks taking the part of the latter. It would, no doubt, have been far better for the defendant had he allowed her to carry her intention into effect; but he says, and so far as we can judge says honestly, that he was convinced that she was then insane, and was unwilling to allow an old servant of his family to go out on the world in that condition. However that may be, it is certain that she was seen a few days afterwards by Sir John Olliffe, the eminent physician to the British embassy, and also by a French medical man, that they both concurred in thinking her insane, and that on their certificates she was confined in the asylum at Charenton. She alleges that neither of these practitioners had any conversation with her, or subjected her to any proper examination. But although the premature termination of the case prevented either of them being called, it is not credible that a person in the position and of the reputation of Sir John Olliffe, should have acted in the hasty manner she describes; while it is placed beyond all doubt that the opinion he formed of her condition was fully shared by the senior physician of the asylum after she had been there for some time. Mr. Hore, the defendant's brother-in-law, and by no means a witness prejudiced in his favour, admits that to him this gentleman said, "That she was certainly insane; restless and walking about at night; not likely to injure herself, but others; in fact, wicked." The case on behalf of the defendant might almost be rested on this evidence, so far as the charge of maliciously procuring her confinement was concerned; but there were, besides, abundant grounds for distrusting the whole account which she gave of the transaction, and of the conduct of the defendant. It turned out that the quarrel in 1865 was by no means the first they had had, and that in 1861 she had actually quitted the service of Serjeant Storks, in consequence of something of the kind. While she was away, she wrote a series of letters, half of which directly contradict the other half. For instance, in one letter she writes in terms of the warmest gratitude. In another she complains of having received "nothing but the grossest ingratitude." Again, in one letter, she declines a loan of money, with many thanks for the kindness of the family. But in others she speaks with dissatisfaction of living in the empty house of the family, where she might have her throat cut—"an easy way of getting rid of her;" complains that both the defendant and the aged serjeant had treated her badly, and declines to return to their service in order that "you might again trample upon me as you have been trying to do." This singular correspondence was closed by a letter acknowledging, in the most emphatic terms, the kindness she had received from the defendant, and expressing the sincerest regret for the letters which we have just described. It was, of course, impossible to place the slightest reliance upon the testimony of a person who was shown to have written in such a manner a few years previously. The only explanation of which these letters admit is that the writer was subject to delusions which came and went; and that when she was under their influence she made statements and used expressions for which she was sincerely sorry in her sane moments. The same inference was still more strongly suggested by another fact which was elicited from her on cross-examination. According to her own account, the defendant was at various times guilty of acts of violence towards her. One of the most remarkable of them, she said, occurred in April, 1865, when he rushed into the room, knelt upon her, and beat her. Shortly after this she came over to London. While there, and of course totally removed from the influence of the defendant, she confessed that she said to some of her friends that Mr. Storks had behaved very kindly to her; and she bore out this statement by returning to Paris in the middle of May, shortly before the occurrence complained of in this action took place. Her evidence was, however, still further weakened by the language which she attributed to the defendant. Assuming him, for the sake of argument, to have been the bad son and the bad man which she wished to make him out, it was incredible that he should have gone about telling his servants that "he was an assassin at heart," that he should be glad if his father were dead, and that he wished he could treat him as people in India treated their parents when they lived too long. While these are not things which any sane man is likely to say, they are just the things that a woman verging upon lunacy, if not actually a lunatic, is likely to imagine or invent.

Upon the whole, therefore, we have no hesitation in arriving at the conclusion that Mr. Storks was entirely guiltless of any nefarious designs against the liberty of Mrs. Kearns. If he had had an opportunity of entering the box, it is evident, from the questions put to the plaintiff's witnesses, that he would have represented her as something very different from the mild and inoffensive person which she described herself; nor can we doubt that, after the discrepancies we have pointed out in the



plaintiff's case, the jury would have given entire credence to his testimony and that of the medical witnesses by whom we may safely assume that it would have been supported. For reasons upon which it is not for us to speculate, but which we see no ground for regarding with suspicion, he preferred to consent to the withdrawal of a juror, the plaintiff's counsel retracting all the charges against him, and acknowledging that, whether he acted rightly or wrongly, his conduct was characterized by good faith. On the other hand, he was understood to have continued to Mrs. Kearns the allowance which she had earned by long and faithful service in his family. If he was at all hasty in his conduct, he has paid quite a sufficient penalty for it in the annoyance and expense of this action. But, on the other hand, he has derived from it no inconsiderable advantage. If the case had never been brought into Court, Mrs. Kearns would, no doubt, have gone about representing herself to be, as we dare say she believes she is, the victim of a diabolical plot. She would have been readily believed by those who drink in such stories with avidity, and the unfortunate Mr. Storks might in time have found his character seriously compromised by the wild talk of a flighty woman. Four days' investigation in the Court of Queen's Bench has relieved him from this danger, and has placed Mrs. Kearns in her proper light. We wonder whether that credulous portion of the public which seems to take its notions of life from the pages of the penny periodicals, will accept the lesson, and be a little more cautious in pinning its faith to the next raw-head and bloody-bones story that comes in its way? We fear not; cross examination may expose falsehood, but it will not exorcise folly.

#### NON-TRADING BANKRUPTS.

AMONGST the usual bankruptcy reports which appear in the public papers, there might have been noticed the other day one of those cases which cause foreigners to sneer at, and Englishmen to lament, the extraordinary anomalies that exist in this branch of our law. Not that there were any new features presented in the circumstances connected with the insolvency, or any heretofore unheard-of legal difficulties to be argued on either side. The facts given were few, the decision of the Commissioner only such as could be expected, the amount of money involved but a few hundred pounds. An ex-military officer, being unable to pay his debts, was arrested and taken to prison. Not wishing to remain two or three months in Whitecross-street he declared himself a bankrupt *in formâ pauperis*, this term meaning that having sworn he was not worth five pounds in the world the stamps on his petition were furnished gratis. Five days after he had presented his petition he appeared, according to law, before the Court and asked to be released from custody. But the creditor who had arrested him objected to this, and, although he neither gave nor was asked any reason for so doing, his simple opposition was enough to obtain an order for the debtor to be sent back to gaol. It did not appear in evidence—nor, indeed, was it even hinted at—that any fraud had been committed, or that either goods or money had been obtained from any one on false pretences; in fact the merits or demerits of the case were not entered into one way or another. The bankrupt had been upwards of three weeks in prison, he had petitioned the Court as directed by law, and in the usual way had asked for his release from imprisonment. The Commissioner was indifferent one way or another, but the simple veto of the detaining creditor was enough: so the bankrupt was sent back to prison until the choice of assignees should take place, his sojourn in gaol being thereby prolonged for not less than ten or twelve days.

Let us for a moment imagine this same individual to be rich enough to declare himself a bankrupt—as a dozen or more insolvents do every day—after the usual form, without going to prison. If he had had twenty pounds in his pocket with which to obtain the stamps and discharge the various court-fees, he might have gone to Basinghall-street before he was arrested, have filed his schedule, made himself a bankrupt, obtained his protection, and, so far as arrest or imprisonment was concerned, have laughed at his creditors. But not having the means to pay for this luxury, he was obliged to wait until the sheriff's officers had hunted him down, and then from the prison to petition as a pauper not worth five pounds in the world. It follows, then—as is perfectly well known to all who are conversant with the bankruptcy laws—that being arrested or not, depends upon the possession of a certain sum of money, which money, if a man is insolvent, most indubitably belongs by right to his creditors; and therefore, it is, in point of fact, the honest man who gives up every penny to satisfy his debts that

must suffer imprisonment; whereas, the dishonest individual who manages to save twenty pounds gets off scot free, and is merely put to the inconvenience of walking about with a certificate, called "a protection," in his pocket. This anomalous state of things is by no means imaginary, for instances of it occur in almost every day's bankruptcy reports. The debtor who cannot produce twenty pounds for fees and stamps must expect, sooner or later, to be arrested, and once in gaol, he is at the mercy, so far as an extra ten or twelve days' imprisonment are concerned, of his detaining creditor. The latter need assign no reason whatever for the opposition he offers, and, indeed, has seldom any cause for what he does, except the wish to exercise a spirit of vindictiveness. He has simply to state that he opposes, or to pay a solicitor a guinea for saying the same, and no matter what interest may be risked by the debtor's incarceration, back the latter must go to gaol. He may have a family depending upon him, his trade may be utterly ruined, his situation lost, or his health destroyed by further incarceration. No matter; his judge is virtually not the Commissioner in Bankruptcy, but the man who owes him an ill-turn, because he is that man's debtor. The extra days the debtor passes in gaol, are no security to his creditors, for he is certain to be released at last, but they are, in all probability, a very great punishment to him and those depending on him. If it is wrong to release him when he first applies, it is equally wrong to do so after the choice of his assignees has been made. If he intends to escape at first, it is tolerably certain he will do so when he gets free of prison. In a word, the practice of which we complain is neither more nor less than a power given to vindictive creditors to ill-treat their debtors as much as possible, and, as such, ought to share the fate of the old insolvent laws which were swept away six years ago.

There is nothing which marks more strongly the distrust which the trading community have of the present bankruptcy code than the fact that mercantile failures are now nearly always settled out of court. If a commercial firm cannot meet its just liabilities—if the house is reputed to be "in a bad way"—if its bankers look black upon it, refuse to discount its paper, and the money article of the *Times* finally reports that its bills have been returned—it is now very seldom or never that Mr. Commissioner Goulbourn or Holroyd has to decide upon the conduct of the partners. There is in the City when such an event takes place, a universal wish to keep out of bankruptcy. The very court which was instituted, and is kept up to decide upon similar cases, is avoided by all concerned, as a ship's captain avoids a lee shore. And yet, in nineteen cases out of twenty, commercial creditors invariably follow the same order of procedure. An accountant is appointed to investigate the books, in due time a meeting of those concerned is convened, a committee is chosen, and the estate is wound up under supervision of two or three of its members. Mercantile creditors nowadays very wisely take the management of their own affairs into their own hands. They are thus all the better satisfied at what they themselves do; the debtor is not annoyed by writs, worried by attorneys, disgraced by appearing in the *Gazette*, or put to the expense of defending himself before the Commissioner. The Bankruptcy Court is abandoned to Captain Hardup or Mr. Neverpay, and may be said to have taken the place formerly occupied by the old Insolvent Court. There are no doubt exceptions to this rule, and occasionally mercantile failures are adjudicated upon in Basinghall-street; but these are rare exceptions, and very often when the preliminary steps have been taken before the Bankruptcy Commissioners, the case is afterwards withdrawn from the Court, and the subsequent liquidation of the estate taken in hand by persons appointed by the creditors. The reason for this is obvious. To say nothing of the exorbitant expenses attending upon all bankruptcy proceedings, there is a mistrust, not perhaps of the justice, but of the uncertainty of these courts. When men of business have money to recover, they take a practical view of the subject. They invariably try to save all they can out of the fire; but unless there has been deliberate and undoubted swindling on the part of their debtor, they are careless about punishing him. The Bankruptcy Court works in exactly a contrary spirit. The money of creditors seems to be the last thing thought of in this tribunal. The trade assignee, the opposing creditors, and all the legal talent engaged in such cases, appear to have but one object in view, and that is to run down the debtor whose case is being heard. Fortunately for the latter, the Commissioner generally steps in between him and his tormentors, and should there be nothing criminal in his conduct, he in the end gets off scot-free. But the result that we pointed out is the same, and the Basinghall-street courts may now be called the tribunals at which non-trading debtors are accused, heard, tried, and judged;



the vindictiveness of their accusers proving the great safeguard of the accused, inasmuch as it generally provokes the commiseration of the presiding Commissioner.

Unfortunately for the credit of England, the number of non-trading bankrupts is large and daily increasing. The great facility which creditors have in arresting debtors, and the way in which the lower order of attorneys urge their clients to take out writs and issue executions are the chief reasons for the present lamentable state of things. There is a class of petty money-lenders and tradesmen who regard their power to arrest debtors as a justification for giving credit, and their security for doing so. They know that their debtors can hardly run away. They have families, are householders, hold employments, or have business which must be attended to. As a rule, tradesmen's debts are chiefly incurred by the hardest working of the middle class—the men who have for years to struggle against increasing families, rising prices, and stationary means. That they, like the rest of the world, do wrong in getting into debt, there cannot be two questions about. But at the same time it is equally certain that if tradesmen at first objected to letting these individuals get behind with their bills, a much greater amount of self-restraint would have been exercised, and much subsequent misery avoided. In France there is hardly such a thing known as a non-trading bankrupt, the reason being that it is in that country the invariable custom for customers to pay cash for all they wear in the way of clothing, or consume in the way of provisions. There are, of course, exceptions to the rule, and imprisonment for debt is not altogether unknown. But those who thus suffer for their folly are generally young men of the higher classes, who have had ample means at their disposal to live in comfort, if not luxury, and are therefore all the less to be pitied now that they are reaping the harvest they have sown. But it is not so in England. At the present day debt appears to be less fashionable in Belgravia, but much more common in Islington and Clapham than of old. Non-trading bankrupts are getting every day more numerous, and, although Acts of Parliament can no more make men prudent than it can induce them to be religious, much might be done to mitigate a great and increasing evil which threatens to become so common that it will shortly be deemed no disgrace to appear in the *Gazette*. So far as it is possible to see, there can be only one remedy possible for this state of things. If we are to have bankruptcy laws and bankruptcy protection, let it be extended to the poor as well as the rich. Let us either abolish altogether the stamps and fees required before a debtor can petition the court previous to arrest, or else enact a law by which the very fact of incarceration allows the debtor to appear at once before the registrar, declare himself a bankrupt, and obtain his immediate protection from arrest. If tradesmen knew that they could issue execution upon the goods, but not upon the body of their indebted customer, they would be much more careful than at present in giving, as they do, almost unlimited credit to any one they consider respectable. And the rarer credit becomes amongst the non-trading community, the more will men learn to live on their means, no matter how small those means may be, which is the only sure way of keeping clear of debt and trouble.

The bankruptcy laws as at present exercised are regarded by a certain class as nothing more or less than an effective means of tormenting debtors, whether they have been guilty or not of fraud or misrepresentation. The non-trading bankrupt, who does not give up everything, but manages somehow to retain enough not only to pay his court expenses, but also to fee a clever solicitor, and "square" those who oppose his discharge, is certain to have an easy passage through Basinghall-street to freedom from liabilities. The power now given to creditors is at once too great and too little. Too great, as in the instance we cited at the commencement of this article, of opposing, without giving any reason, the discharge from custody of a debtor; too little, as being out of the power of the creditor, who merely wants some settlement of his account, to prevent the more vindictive of his class from arresting the debtor and destroying the only chance there is of his ever paying what he owes. In the great majority of the cases that appear before the Bankruptcy Commissioners, although the debts are comparatively small in amount, the arrests are *nil*, or rarely large enough to give a dividend worth having. The trading bankrupt of course has money owing him, and makes some show with the accounts he furnishes. But the non-trader has generally but his household furniture, which is invariably sold at about a fifth of its value, and helps him but little out of the mud. Those who benefit by what the non-trading bankrupt can call property are the brokers, the messengers, and a host of hangers-on about the courts. The *bonâ-fide* creditor can only exercise what petty spite he may feel, and with this he must rest con-

tent. Strange that in a business country like England, so unbusiness a way of settling with creditors should be enforced. The whole law of bankruptcy as at present existing is but a piece of ill-executed patchwork, and the sooner it is revised the better for the monetary morality of the land and the security of the shopkeeping community.

#### COMPETITION.

THERE are few words in the English language the simple and original meaning of which has become more corrupted by association than the word "competition." Hence it is necessary, in order to clear the term of ambiguities, to define at starting the precise meaning we attach to it. A preliminary definition is necessarily somewhat obscure, but we may premise shortly that competition is that state of things in which persons are induced to forego some advantage, or to undergo some inconvenience, from the fear that if they do not they will be superseded in their employment by others. In saying that this is what must be understood by competition, we mean, of course, what always must be meant when a definition is reformed.

Let us begin with one or two simple examples from trade. A baker has been in the habit of selling loaves at 7d. each; some day we see him announce that bread is "down to 6½d." Why is this? What is the motive power immediately acting upon him? One reason, or rather a part of the reason, no doubt, will be that the materials of the loaf have been cheapened, or perhaps that other bakers have come into the place. But such a cause will not suffice by itself. The people will be quite ready to continue giving the old price if they cannot procure their food for less. Along with all the material conditions there must coexist this moral condition, that each of the bakers is doubtful whether his fellow-tradesmen will continue to hold out for the old price. It is this doubt which makes him individually cheapen his own productions. It is this condition, which must thus coexist with the others, that seems to us the distinctive characteristic of competition. So, again, when the same tradesman raises his workmen's wages. He does not do this because the workman would not rather go on at the old rate than be thrown out of employment; but because he fears that other tradespeople will draw his workmen away from him. As, in the former case, we must not be understood to imply that this mutual want of confidence is the only cause of the change of price; we only mean that it is a necessary condition of the change, and that it is the characteristic which it seems to us to be best to take as the distinguishing mark of competition.

Now take another case of a very different kind. We hear a good deal at the present day of "competitive examinations." Here, then, is something to which popular usage assigns the name of competition. Can we detect in it the characteristic now under discussion? Undoubtedly we can, and if this characteristic did not exist, such examinations could not be carried on at all. Ingenious undergraduates have sometimes brooded over a scheme by which all the advantages of a high place in a class list could be secured with half the labour which they at present devote to securing that object. All that would be necessary is that each should undertake to work as hard in comparison with his fellows as he does now, the standard itself being lowered, and then every prize and scholarship would be assigned exactly as it is at present. But this pleasant vision is soon clouded by the impossibility of knowing that others were adhering to the agreement. They could never be sure that some needy sizar would not seize the opportunity of working on the sly, and thus securing a higher place than that which of right belonged to him, as in the interesting myth by which undergraduate traditions account for Dr. Whewell's place in the Tripos. In other words, we find that what is essential to a competitive examination, as such, is that there should be a mutual want of confidence in those who compete.

It will be instructive to refer now to one more example in which the same characteristics may be observed, but which differs from the foregoing examples in the fact that popular usage does not commonly give it the name of competition. In securing places at a show of any kind, or in a conveyance, where the accommodation is known to be limited, people are tolerably well aware that they must put themselves to the inconvenience of going early if they want to secure their object and get a good place. But why do they do this? Simply because they apprehend that others will do so, and that they will thus be disappointed if they do not resort to the same means. This mutual apprehension is the sole cause of their taking all the trouble, for since no greater number can be



accommodated, no advantages are secured which would not equally be available if the competitors had all alike gone later to their places.

We have been thus explicit in illustrating the sense in which we use the word, because we think that serious confusion arises from the vague use of it in popular treatises. In the common notions upon the subject, competition is regarded far too nearly as synonymous with *struggle*, and attention is therefore too exclusively directed upon the *numbers* of those who compete. That increased numbers will often cause increased competition, in one sense of the word, is quite true, but they will not necessarily do so. The advantages of competition may be secured when there are no greater numbers in the field; they may fail to be secured when there are greater numbers. We will briefly touch upon each of these cases. Grocers have been selling tea for three shillings a pound. Sixpence is taken off the duty, and in a few days we find that tea can be bought at every shop for half a crown a pound. Every one would admit that this is owing to competition; but there being no more grocers and, for a time, no more tea in the country, no possible reason can be assigned for the reduction, but the mutual fear of the tradesmen that they will be cut out by each other. The same principle shows itself whenever an easier process of production is discovered or a new machine is invented. Many of the producers might not wish to take the trouble of employing the improvement, and all would wish to employ it, and yet retain the old scale of prices. But they dare not do either, and why? Simply because they have no security that all will do collectively what each would like to do individually. The other case above alluded to is still more important—we mean that in which increased numbers cause no increased competition. Nothing is more common than for people to talk of the extreme competition which exists in the professions of law and medicine. But in our sense of the word there is no competition whatever. What has given rise to the confusion is probably the fact that on the side of the professional men themselves the existing state of things does produce some of the effects of real competition; but, viewed from the side of the public, it has no such effect whatever. The average gains of the lawyer or the physician are diminished by their increased numbers, but the public do not get their legal or medical advice the cheaper. The sternest etiquette prevents any of the members of the profession from attempting to underbid the others, and each has perfect confidence that the rest will observe this etiquette. If this confidence were ever broken through, then would there be real competition, and the public would begin to find the difference. We may if we please give the same name to things so different as these; but where a distinction is connected with such important consequences, it is better to mark it in our language.

There is another important point which the common phraseology tends to make us overlook. We constantly hear competition and combination put in contrast with one another. Competition being regarded as essentially a struggle, it is supposed that nothing but a definite league of some kind such as that implied in combination will be sufficient to neutralize it. But if, as we maintain, the essence of competition is the fear of being superseded by the enterprise, or the necessities, of others, this fear may be obviated by other causes than a formal compact. Competition may be prevented not merely by the conscious agreement of those who have met and deliberated, but by the almost unconscious agreement produced by common apathy and laziness. It is notoriously of no use to dismiss a workman unless you can get another who will do more or better work. But amongst an indolent people the number of applicants for place may much exceed the number who can find opportunity of employment, and yet the employer may obtain no benefit from this. There may be such a fixity of custom, or identity of sentiment, about the amount of work to be performed, and the rate of wages to be accepted, that however large may be the proportion of those who are unsuccessful they may never think of underbidding the others. Here, therefore, though there may be much rivalry and struggle to secure a place, the employer will not obtain any of the common advantages of competition. The case of shopkeepers where speculation and rivalry are not so keen as in England. These examples resemble those of the lawyers already discussed. On the one side there are none of the effects of competition observable, and therefore it is better to refuse the name of competition to such cases.

One important aspect of the question can only be touched upon very briefly. From what has been advanced it would seem that this great principle of competition, about which so

much is talked nowadays, can hardly be regarded as a normal condition of the human race. Without going the length of the Socialists who denounce it, we may yet consider that it in some degree marks a transition period. It is founded upon a certain suspicion of one's neighbour, a doubt as to the length to which he may go in his efforts to surpass you. In primitive times it does not exist to any great extent, for there custom is everything. Each man knows tolerably well how hard others will work, or what wages they will give, and he does not trouble himself to give less or do more than others. In this respect, as in many others, the efforts of men in later times are directed towards attempting to regain consciously some of the characteristics which they once possessed unconsciously. They want to understand exactly what other persons will do, and to what lengths they will go; and when individuals are obstreperous they begin to reduce them to order either irregularly, as by trades' unions, or regularly by legislative enactments. A good instance of the way in which people begin at last to rebel against competition may be seen in the matter of national armaments. Here we have competition, in our sense of the term, in its crudest form. Some years ago the armies of every country in Europe were much smaller than they now are. But directly one country begins to add to its troops, the others are forced to do the same. But they must be all quite aware that at the end, after the gigantic cost and burden of military expenditure, their relative strength is left, in most respects, very much as it was before. A want of confidence in each other, however, forces all to follow the leading of any one. Hence the occasional outcry for general disarmaments, and for some kind of understanding and explanation as to what is the meaning and tendency of such a movement. It does not seem altogether chimerical to suppose that a similar desire for mutual understanding may spring up and even be successful in trade and in common life, so that much of the mutual apprehension which now exists may give place to an understanding founded upon custom, and perhaps strengthened here and there by law.

#### ANCIENT RIGHTS OF ARTISANS.

IN estimating the extent to which, in a new Reform Bill, the artisan classes should be admitted to a share of political power, it may not be altogether without its use to consider the position which those classes enjoyed under the old constitution of England. According to the principles of that constitution there were very many constituencies in which every artisan belonging to that community had a vote. In very many cities and towns in England, no man could follow a handicraft trade who was not admitted to the freedom of its guild. As soon as he was so admitted he was entitled to a vote. The trading guilds of the cities and towns were, in fact, trades' unions legalized by charter and regulated by law. Every member of these trades' unions enjoyed the franchise, and no one could follow the trade who did not belong to the trades' union. That such was actually the state of things in many cities of England, no one having the least acquaintance with the history of English corporate franchises can deny. The inquiry suggested by these observations is by no means confined to the cities in which the guilds of skilled workmen constituted, as they very often did, the corporation. Our ancient kings—the Plantagenets and the Tudors—had no such horror of household, or even of universal suffrage, as modern Conservatives profess. There is scarcely a borough in England in which the original charter was not directed to the whole commonalty, and in which, in the period immediately following its grant, all the inhabitants did not enjoy the franchise it conferred. By degrees these boroughs were induced to surrender their rights either to great lords in their neighbourhood, or, in some few instances, to a small number of their own townsmen. Bye-laws were passed enabling a select body to represent the entire commonalty, and modes of election were adopted which shut out the "commonalty" from all rights of interference. From the Revolution to the Reform Bill, the records of the Queen's Bench disclose a constant struggle against these usurpations. The real blow to the popular constitution of the House of Commons was struck in the decisions of that tribunal, which declared the restrictive bye-laws legal. The result was that, in many boroughs in which "the commonalty" were supposed to elect the member, the election was in fact made by a select few—a self-elected body—to whom the commonalty had, by the bye-laws, delegated their rights. There were, however, some boroughs which preserved their privileges unimpaired. Poll-wallowing boroughs existed in the time of the Reform Bill, in which every man who boiled his pot within the limits of the



borough was entitled to a vote. In the town of Preston the franchise was a household one; and the Reform Bill was there a measure of disfranchisement. We think we are correct in saying that in Coventry a large addition to the constituency is still made by the artisans who inherit the right of freedom from their fathers.

Confining our attention to the cities which possessed trading guilds, it is enough to say that the old constitution of England distinctly recognised the artisans as an element of power in the State. It incorporated them into guilds, of which the model was found in the free republics of Italy. It gave to these guilds the control of many municipal bodies, and the power of electing the members in any place. We look in vain in our present arrangement for any such recognition of the place of the artisan. The franchise was given to them with no restrictive or grudging hand. We do not expect to find popular principles well understood in Ireland, and we are not accustomed to look for them in the government of the Stuarts. Yet even in Ireland and in the reign of Charles II. rules were established indiscriminately conferring the franchise upon all Protestant artisans. These rules have, [of course, the defect of religious exclusion, and in most of the Irish corporations they were evaded by the assumption of an arbitrary right of rejection on the part of the governing body. But the intention was to admit every artisan to the franchise. The exclusion of "Papists" was only an exclusion of those who were regarded as an expiring sect, unfit for the right of freemen. A sample of these rules may be found in the Act of Parliament which confirmed the franchise of the workmen of Galway. The enactment is, according to Mr. Lowe's theory, a revolutionary one:—

"Be it enacted that all and every person and persons who profess him or themselves of any trade, mystery, or handicraft that do, or shall come to, or inhabit, dwell, or reside in the said town of Galway, in order to follow their respective trades, shall and are hereby declared to be free of the town and corporation of Galway."

Probably the most ardent advocate of the rights of the working classes would be satisfied by passing a similar enactment for every town in the United Kingdom. The clause is not drawn either by Mr. Bright, Mr. Beales, or Mr. Ernest Jones. It is on the statute-books of Charles II. and of George I. There is not an English city in which guilds of trade existed which has not a charter admitting to the franchise with equal liberality all artisans following their trade or mystery within its walls. Such was the place of the artisan in that ancient constitution the principles of which are now so solemnly invoked against him. Would it not be well if those who are everlastingly appealing to the English constitution in support of exclusion were really to study and understand its principles of freedom? The true principles of those old constitutions were household franchise in most of the small boroughs, a lodger franchise in many, in great cities a franchise to which every man, without exception, who followed any handicraft within them had a right. These were the principles of the constitution: wherever these franchises were restricted, it was done by local usurpation upon popular right—a usurpation which was opposed to the terms of every charter, and which was possible only because the old law respected local government, even to the extent of permitting the commonalty of each borough to abridge their own rights. We venture to commend to the notice of Mr. Disraeli a "fancy franchise" in the words of the statute we have quoted. If we are to act in the spirit of the ancient constitution, we must find some substitute for these guilds, through which in old times the English artisans were admitted to their just share of influence and power in the State.

#### BAITED WITH GARBAGE.

In deep-sea fishing the veriest garbage is successfully used as a bait wherewith to catch silly fish. However unsavoury the mess may seem to fastidious spectators who have no special interest at stake in the capture of the shoal, yet, the fishers know their trade and can confidently reckon upon their prey greedily seizing upon the garbage instead of turning away from it in disgust and abhorrence. We would appear to have imitated this piscatorial custom in many of the social manners and tastes of the present time. For, nowadays, baits must be full-flavoured to be attractive; and, to serve their intended purpose of alluring victims, the prepared pieces should not be too pure and sweet. If the Ghost in "Hamlet" were in this nineteenth century to revisit the glimpses of the moon—perhaps Professor Pepper could manage this for us—he might greatly swell the catalogue of that vice which, as he assured his nephew, doth "prey on

garbage," a sentiment which, in other phrase, Iachimo expressed to Imogen in Cymbeline's palace. For this matter is as Protean as it is unsavoury, and must necessarily be so; because as it is essential that the garbage should prove alluring to the tribe or class to which it is held out as a bait, so it is presented with various forms and under changing conditions. Old Polonius wisely speaks of the bait of falsehood taking the carp of truth; while Angelo confessed that a cunning enemy, in order to catch a saint, should bait his hook with saints. Hero and Ursula laid a "false sweet bait" for Beatrice as she hid herself in the honeysuckle bower in Leonato's garden; while the revengeful Shylock pronounced Antonio's pound of flesh to be good "to bait fish withal." So the bait may vary, but its effect remains the same, though the garbage might seem to be unpalatable it is eagerly snapped, "*Occlusum visus decurrere piscis ad hamum*," as Horace says, and the fisher has secured his prey.

M. Louis Blanc, in his "Letters on England," declared that we cultivated prudery and utter shamelessness side by side, and that delicacy of expression in language was pushed by us to positive affectation; "from whence arises," he adds, "that I have seen there, in a very fashionable watering-place on the sea, men bathing, perfectly naked, and at a few hundred paces from ladies who did not think it worth while to disturb themselves for so small a matter." Perhaps, like Louis Blanc's male bathers, garbage may be presented a little too much in the *au naturel* style to suit the tastes of those who prefer to welcome grossness when it is wrapped up in innuendoes and barely draped by a figment of propriety. That a woman reflects her surroundings, is an axiom often laid down by that school of French writers which has enacted for our observance other laws than those pertaining to sumptuary regulations, and which, with vicious ingenuity, has so dealt with the seventh commandment, that its infractions appear rather as venial errors than gross sins. The prurient productions of this school have been translated and adapted, imitated and repeated in this country to a dangerous extent, and the literature both of our library and stage is largely baited with this imported garbage. As a necessary sequence to this, the Navarrette of "La Contagion" extends the sway of her fascinations over English hearts; and the Brompton Phryne and St. John's Wood Laïs are no longer constrained to blush unseen—if blushing be among their acquired arts—but are encouraged to flaunt themselves in the choicest public haunts, and to be tacitly countenanced by those from whom society takes its tone, and by whom the decencies of life are observed. Instead of being sunk in its congenial foul and polluted stream, the garbage is permitted to appear amid the purer waters, so that one may "see the fish," as Ursula said, "greedily devour the treacherous bait." Fashion no longer frowns down Vice, if she comes in siren shape, and attired in the latest novelties of dress. Messalina's brougham and Aspasia's high-stepping ponies, are, to many silly fools, the baited garbage that has more attractions for them than the gentle companionship of the ordinary English maiden who can neither smoke nor swear, and whose conversation is not seasoned with suggestive slang or befouled by shameless sallies.

At that last autumnal meeting of metropolitan guardians at St. James's Hall, when Dr. Brewer denounced the Archbishop of York, he said that "fast young ladies, slangy young gentlemen, and prurient old greybeards would feast upon the garbage of society, just as George I. liked to feast upon putrid oysters." And he further observed, that "it was Bill Sykes and Jack Sheppard who first introduced that kind of sensational literature;" though it did not clearly appear that he designated Mr. Ainsworth and the author of "Oliver Twist" as the typical or representative sensational novelists of the pre-Braddonian period. But Mr. Francis has very recently put forth some reliable statistics as to the present state of the Jack Sheppard class of literature, and he represents that the press is now weekly issuing about 210,000 copies of thirty publications of this kind; but that he feels satisfied that the collection of periodicals now being made by Messrs. Cole & Collins for the French Exhibition will bear him out in the opinion that "immoral and unwholesome publications never were so rare; nor good, wholesome, and cheap publications so abundant as they now are." And, despite the filthy advertisements that are still suffered to appear in so many of the penny weeklies and provincial newspapers, which are thus baited with garbage of the foulest sort—despite, too, those unclean records of the Divorce Court which contribute their own native nastiness to the high-spiced reading that is provided by the cheap daily press for the ingenuous youth of the present day—despite certain poems issued during the past year, and condemned by the public for being too glaringly baited with the garbage of sensuality—



despite all this, and the public hawking of little street shows, umbrellas filled with cheap prints of a lewd order, still grosser photographs of so-called "academy models," and bundles of vile books, papers, and songs that are given away to those who will purchase a straw from their vendor—despite all this evidence of existing garbage offered by way of attractive baits alike to the vicious and inexperienced, we yet think that throughout the wide field of literature there now runs a full and clear stream of purity, which, in its own due time, will wash the filth away. It is certainly the case, and that it is so is a cause for great thankfulness—that the popular publications of the present day are not baited with garbage so prurient, immoral, and coarse as that which not so very many years ago was found to be so acceptable to the public taste, and was so freely recognised by leaders alike of society and literature, that a filthy book on life in London could be published with a dedication "to his most Gracious Majesty King George IV." (sweets to the sweet!), and Professor Wilson could say of it, when he wrote his essay on George Cruikshank in *Blackwood's Magazine* for July, 1823:—"But, what a start did he make when his genius had received a truer and diviner impulse from the splendid imagination of an Egan! How completely, how *toto cælo*, did he out-Cruikshank himself when he was called upon to embody the conceptions of that remarkable man in the designs for 'Tom and Jerry'? The world felt this, and he felt it himself." Yet, notwithstanding this dictum of the foremost writer of the most notable magazine of the day, we do not, as some of our fathers did, leave this regal-sanctioned work on our drawing-room tables for the edification of our wives and daughters and their young-lady friends, but we either burn it, or hide it away in the holes and corners of our libraries.

But, although Paternoster-row does not now send forth works of the Tom-and-Jerry class, they are still freely offered for sale in the monthly catalogues of a large proportion of the second-hand booksellers. The publication of such catalogues, both in town and country, has increased to a remarkable degree; and as they, together with the pamphlets of quack-doctors, are freely posted to persons whose addresses are given in the "Court Guide," "Clergy List," and county directories, they may thus be brought under the notice of the wives and children of a large class of the community. We have known them to be sent to widows long after the decease of their husbands; to be opened by young ladies, under the impression that they were the lists of library-books; and to fall into the hands of maid-servants through having been thrown into the waste-paper basket instead of into the fire. And the flames should be their immediate destination; for, under the deceptive headings of "Facetiae, Curious Books, French Works, Celebrated Trials," and the like, are printed the titles of immoral publications, to which special attention is called by enlarged type, salacious annotations, suggestive extracts, or descriptions of the choicest artistic indecencies. These erotic productions are mixed up with black-letter books, rare Bibles, missals on vellum, sermons, topographical works, county histories, Cromwelliana, Bewickiana, and others, among which are many that a country collector would desire to possess, and the purchase of which would, of course, secure for him a protracted visitation of the catalogue, in which filthy garbage is evidently made the chief bait, for it not only swamps the decent portions of the catalogue, but is also marked by the highest scale of prices. It is very evident that as there is a steady supply of this garbage, it is found attractive by those who prefer to purchase it at a far higher price than they would give for clean, wholesome, and nourishing literary food; and, from the copies of the same immoral works that are simultaneously offered for sale by several in the trade, it is also evident that the existence of such works is, unfortunately, not limited to solitary copies and unique specimens. We are not aware that this subject has hitherto been mentioned in the public press; but, as watchers over the public morals, we deem it our duty not to shrink from the disagreeable task of calling special notice to so foul a plague-spot. Surely there should be some legal provision that would restrain second-hand booksellers from thrusting in the faces of Purity and Innocence their prurient descriptions of the second-hand filth in which many of them so largely deal, and with which they seek to catch customers in catalogues baited with garbage.

#### WALL-FLOWERS.

WALL-FLOWERS may be described as ball-flowers in the background. They cannot be said to bloom in the season, for their graces are dead and their colours artificial. While the ball-flowers are sought and culled and whisked triumphantly

to the music, the wall-flowers shiver in nooks and corners with no one to tend them, save perhaps an elderly man who is unable to dance, and whose attentions are as fatal as those of the seedy bailiff who dodges a debtor. There is nothing in the social world so dreary as the fashionable life of a wall-flower who has become one gradually and without knowing it, but who suddenly is made aware of the fact with all its attendant desolation. For a time, and for a long time, the wall-flower will not believe in her destiny. It is so hard to face a truth so ugly and so appalling, for appalling it is to a woman whose heart is set on conquest and marriage, and whose mind is unprepared, when her mission fails, to accept the other alternative. Her first season she had her choice of partners. She could select some and forget them afterwards; choose nice ones to flirt with and good ones to gallop with; and take an odd one partly in the way of business, an "eligible," to show her mamma and her friends that she could be practical when she liked; in short, she saw nothing beyond her reach, and enjoyed everything within it. Men, however, discover a born wall-flower by a sort of instinct. She seldom receives a proposal, or if she does, her unfortunate vanity or perversity always makes her reject it. In the heart of the wall-flower there is a superb self-consciousness of her own power, and she never could forego the pleasure of inflicting pain when the suffering may be reckoned as a homage to her perfections. Thus she is led on by fatal mischances, not seeing her doom, while her acquaintances are gradually reading it in her face and whispering it to each other. At length a ball comes, at which her favourite partners seem to overlook her. She puts the circumstance down to accident, but feels a sense of uneasiness when the host asks her for a quadrille in a tone of compassionate interest. Her card, when occupied at all, is occupied for square dances and by square toes of a middle-aged order. At this point the poor wall-flower gets intensely juvenile. Outside she eschews bonnets as often as possible, and affects the society of the youngest men she can seize upon. In the ball-room she is for ever expectant, and, poor thing, suffers intolerable agony and suspense during those intervals when sets are being made up and partners claimed. She furtively watches now this gentleman and now that, as they march about with that courteous appearance of proprietorship with which the modern swell parades the scene of his triumphs and his martyrdom. One after another she sees the pairs filing off, and the strains of the orchestra make her eager for a turn; her feet beat time to the music, and she gazes at a still unentangled individual with an almost pleading expression, which he disregards with the savage stoicism of an Indian superintending an enemy tortured by squaws. By-and-by a squaw approaches—a British squaw—with very young daughters, who knows how to drop molten lead upon the quivering wall-flower. This is her manner of doing it: she simply inquires, "Why are you not dancing, my dear?" And there is more to follow. During promenade periods, have you ever noticed the cruel glances of the girls with partners at the wretched wall-flowers? They beam on them with a radiance of enjoyment which must cause a mortification and a bitterness in the soul of the deserted which is not agreeable to contemplate. Nor are her trials yet over. There is the ordeal by supper. She counts the dances between her and supper, and as they are scored off she waits with an increasing anxiety for the person who is to take her down. There are many present with whom she has pulled a detonating piece of confectionery, who have shared half her peach, who have fled at her beck and saved the last wing of fowl, and who now never once look in her direction, but proceed to offer their services to fairer misses, or to those lively married women who are yet more attractive. A goodnatured fellow pities the wall-flower, and she hates him thoroughly for the sentiment. She accepts his arm almost sulkily, and he (sensible of an act of heroic virtue, and hoping it won't be misunderstood in a quarter for which he will desert his present charge as quickly as possible) begins to suspect he was an ass for his pains, and to relapse into the mere elements of dialogue, and to those abstracted attentions which render cold meats the colder, and which deaden the vivacity of the most exhilarating Moselle. The wall-flower, perhaps, attempts with an effort to forget her misery, and to fascinate him. She brings him close to her, and talks incessantly. She is sanguine he may ask her to dance after supper. But the means are inadequate to the end in view. If at his other side a youthful ball-flower is sitting who attracts him, lures him from his forced allegiance, and engrosses him for refreshment, entertainment, and flirting, how shall we record the rage consuming the wall-flower? The jokes, the laughter, the murmurs of cooing significance, add fuel to the flame. She at last wishes to be at home. A few hours later she stands before her looking-



glass. Her ball programme, scantily scored, lies on the dressing-table. She has a ream of them in her desk, and a recollection of their memorandums does not serve to render her slumbers pleasant. She recalls, too, that instead of half a dozen competitors for the office of muffling and helping her into the carriage, she had to wrap her neck with her own hands, to creep into the brougham unassisted, and to pull her dress after her as best she could, instead of having it pushed with a discreet attention and a softness which bespoke at once refinement and regard. All this, however, does not cure her. She goes again and again to evening parties, is relegated to fogies and to *chaperones*, is left alone night after night, and more alone as the nights advance. What such women endure it is almost impossible to imagine. A seamstress starving over a shirt scarcely undergoes more thorough misery than a wall-flower lingering for attention, and thirsting for that which she can never get and which was lost with her youth. Civilization does occasionally make us pay for its pleasures; fashion is a Moloch to whom sacrifices of this kind are highly acceptable. Here is an utter degradation of mind, fancy frittered into nothing, understanding, if it ever existed, reduced to a fractional proportion, memory a torture, will a barren incapacity, and the thing left is a wall-flower, stuck for a moral and a warning, or a joke, along the side or in the ante-chamber of a ball-room. We can scarce wonder at the desperate efforts of women to get married with such a prospect before them; but why the prospect should be a necessity we leave them to ask of themselves. A wall-flower has (though we adhere to the statement of a native propensity) almost invariably an opening by which to escape the awful situation; but those who will not see are more blind than those who cannot. Why, for instance, should women, whose looks fade between thirty and forty, go to balls? If they have money enough to bring men about them their object is evident, but might more effectually be perpetrated elsewhere. If their fortunes are moderate, and their features blurred by time; if wall-flowerism threatens them by warnings which they cannot mistake, however they may attempt to disguise the facts, can they not remain at home and try amiability, improving the mind and writing for half-crown magazines? The boy who smokes until his head gives way and his stomach follows,—the *savant* who is invited to a dinner of horse steaks,—the gentleman of literary tastes who is obliged to hear a friend read a little thing he has just finished, and wants a candid opinion upon,—the petitioner or the respondent in a Chancery suit,—or the patient who is holding his jaw while a dentist is fumbling for the surgical latch-key by which teeth are extracted, may be presumed to taste some of the bitters of life; but their trials are as nothing to the sufferings which women bring upon themselves by a false estimate of the value of husbands, and of the mode of procuring them. What the charms of twenty fail to effect, the dimmer graces of five-and-thirty will scarcely succeed in achieving; and yet women will renew at five-and-thirty the fascinations of the earlier period. Those attempts result in wall-flowers, unwholesome and unprofitable growths, which in no way resemble their natural prototypes, save that they flourish in dismal and sterile places.

### NOTES OF THE WEEK.

THE discontent very generally excited in France by the meagre and incomplete character of the Imperial reforms promulgated on the 19th of January, has undoubtedly been productive of good. The Emperor seems to have really taken into consideration the very clear utterance of public opinion which followed the appearance of his memorable letter to M. Rouher. The *Presse* declares that his Majesty is "the head of the Liberal party;" and unquestionably he is more reasonable than some of the Ministers by whom he is surrounded. The desire among reformers now appears to be that the Conservative members of the Government should be removed, and their places supplied by more progressive men. That the Emperor will accede to this wish is not unlikely. He is said to be at present in a very reforming mood, and it is rumoured that his speech at the opening of the Corps Législatif will contain a series of announcements of a highly liberal character. Prince Napoleon, whose radical speech in Corsica, some few years ago, led to his temporary withdrawal into a species of discreet privacy, has long been received again into Imperial favour, and it is expected that he will be reappointed to the Presidency of the Exhibition. Among the measures spoken of for early discussion in the Legislative body is one—originally brought in two years ago—for the entire

abolition of imprisonment for debt. This is very well; but what the public chiefly demands are political reforms. If the Emperor is sagacious enough to perceive and honestly carry out these requirements of the time, he may immensely increase his popularity, and add incalculably to the security of his rule. The re-erection of the tribune seems to point to a greater license of Parliamentary debate; but the surest guarantee of a movement in the right direction would be the appointment to a place in the Government of some such man as M. Emile Ollivier.

MUCH mystery has shrouded the recent acts of the Emperor Maximilian, and especially the sudden abandonment of his declared resolution to resign. The *Mémorial Diplomatique* professes to give the reasons for this change of intention; and, if we may rely on the statement, those reasons were very creditable to the Sovereign. At a conference of Ministers and members of the Council of State held at Orizaba, the Emperor laid down, as the conditions on which he would alone consent to remain, "the convocation, on a most liberal basis, of a National Committee charged with declaring whether the Empire is to be continued, and of deciding on what form of government shall be adopted for the future; the creation of sufficient resources to cover the budget without having recourse to the expedient of loans, which in the present circumstances would have no chance of success; the formation of a national army by means of a military conscription; the preparation of laws necessary for realizing a vast system of colonization, intended to develop the natural resources with which Mexico is so richly endowed; the equitable accomplishment of the engagements contracted with France, and the settlement of good neighbourly relations with the United States." Twenty out of the twenty-two members of the conference having adhered to these conditions, the meeting broke up, and it was understood that the Emperor, while awaiting the decision of the National Congress, would abstain from all indications of a design to abdicate. An appeal to the nation is the only fair way out of the difficulty; and we think the nation might do worse than give Maximilian authority to stay.

A TELEGRAM from Vienna, of Wednesday's date, states that the announcement of the decision of the Austrian Government to forego the assembling of an extraordinary Diet will be communicated to the ordinary Diets on the 18th inst., the more special assembly having become unnecessary "in consequence of the settlement which has been arrived at with Hungary." We have so often heard of settlements with Hungary, and they have so invariably turned out to be no settlements, that we are somewhat sceptical as to this cheerful announcement. It is believed, however, that a Hungarian Ministry has been definitely constituted, with Count Andrassy for President and M. Longay for Minister of Finance; and M. Deak has been requested to consult personally with the Government at Vienna. There is also to be, for the Empire at large, a Reichsrath in accordance with the February Constitution, and to this assembly will be submitted the new law for the reorganization of the army, and a Government Bill proposing an amendment to the February Constitution, and the establishment of Ministerial responsibility. These changes of policy have led to the resignation of Count Belcredi, who wished to submit the arrangement with Hungary to an extraordinary Diet.

ITALY is credited by popular rumour, current more especially in Naples, with an intention of entering into an active alliance with Austria and France—for what object does not appear. There was some talk of the same thing immediately after the conclusion of the war of last summer, when Italy was in an irritable and France in a jealous mood, and when Austria might have been supposed to be inclined to form any alliance which could bring her the strength she lacked. But for some months we have heard no more of any such project, until the revival of the rumour within the last few days. It does not seem a very likely story. By allying herself with Austria, Italy would offend Prussia, which has certainly been a useful friend to her, and may be so again; and she would identify herself with a policy opposed to that of the nationalities, which has been her own making. Florence and Vienna represent opposite interests, and they cannot wed.

THE *Times'* correspondent, writing from Washington, describes a struggle made by the Democratic members of the Legislative Assembly to assert their right to discuss an



important measure, whose object was to do away with the effect of the recent decision of the Supreme Court as to the illegality of the Test Oath. The mover of the Bill determined to force it through the House without allowing it to be discussed. The Democrats implored him to grant them one hour's debate, but he was obdurate. "To two or three members he dealt out 'five minutes,' 'three minutes,' and, to one gentleman, 'two minutes;'" but this was all he would concede them. The Democrats, however, though in a minority, were strong enough to make up that fifth of those which can demand, on any motion, that the roll of the House shall be read, and each member answer to his name, a process which occupies half an hour. By bringing forward motion after motion, and demanding the "yeas and nays" on each, the Democrats fought off the division on the Bill for twenty hours, and at last compelled the Radicals to concede them the hour's debate for which they had prayed. The Bill was ultimately carried, but the Democrats have shown that they are not powerless if they choose to exert their power.

THERE have been serious riots in the mining districts of Belgium, which it is asserted—and also denied—have been provoked by the intrigues of foreign emissaries. On the morning of the 2nd inst., the coal-miners of Dampremy left their pits, forced the day hands to follow them, and advanced towards Marchiennes, which they reached in a body, including women and children, 2,000 strong, the men armed with sticks, the women with pitchforks. Here they attacked the mill, which, after several hours' resistance, was evacuated by a detachment of 100 men of the 11th Regiment of the line, not before they had fired upon the mob and killed three of them. The rioters then sacked the mill, but leaving the brewery and granaries untouched. The subsequent arrest of thirty of the miners, including the principal ringleaders, has had the effect of restoring order, and the men belonging to the different factories and coal-mines near Marchiennes have resumed work.

THE American newspapers furnish us with accounts of cruelties inflicted upon the freed negroes of the north-eastern counties of Texas, which are almost too horrible to believe. The freedmen are robbed of their crops, flogged, and murdered, and, although the grand juries can point out the criminals, they do not dare to indict them. One free negro was whipped for addressing a young man as "Tom," instead of "Master Thomas," and another was shot for refusing to lend a bottle of whisky to two white men. Why coldblooded, heartless atrocities of this sort should be permitted to go unpunished in any country professing even the rudest form of civilization, is more than we can understand.

WE are grateful to the Society of Arts for discussing the cab question. The cabs of London, like a considerable portion of its morals, are in a very deplorable state. Alteration will not necessarily make them better, but it cannot make them worse. They are dirty, dingy, damp, and generally disreputable; and as for their horses, they look much more in want of a ride than fit to be driven. That the metropolis should be permanently doomed to such vehicles and such horse-flesh, is a fate which its worst enemy should not wish for it. No other capital in Europe is so afflicted; and we have only to visit Birmingham, Liverpool, or Manchester, to see how much better they manage their public carriages there, to say nothing of Paris. But, after all, it is a question which depends upon the public. If they will have their cabs cheap, they must have them nasty. Sixpence a mile is not a sufficient fare. In Birmingham the fare is a shilling a mile for a four-wheeler, and eightpence for a two-wheeler; in Edinburgh, it is sixpence for every half mile; in Liverpool, a shilling a mile for two persons; in Manchester the driver fixes his own tariff, and is only bound to affix it to his vehicle in letters not less than an inch high. The truth is, we drive too hard a bargain with our cabbies, and expect them to exhibit every good quality possible to their state for an unremunerative payment. Therefore we have dirty cabs and slow horses. The remedy is in our own hands.

WE learn from an Irish correspondent that Mr. Vincent Scully, in seeking the representation of the county of Cork, intends to do so upon the most independent and economical principles. Mr. Scully remembers Mr. Mill's election for Westminster, and perceiving no difference between himself and that gentleman, he proposes—so we are informed—to offer himself to the constituents purely and simply as a candidate

who should rather be paid than pay for the honour of representing them. One gentleman writes to the *Cork Examiner* recommending the adoption of Mr. Butt, Q.C., as the Liberal candidate, and he backs his recommendation with a sum of £50 as the commencement of a subscription to carry out his proposal. Mr. Puxley, Captain Smith Barry, and Mr. P. Hennessy, are also spoken of.

THE Jamaica Committee, on Wednesday last, caused an application to be made to Sir Thomas Henry for warrants to apprehend Colonel Nelson and Lieutenant Brand upon a charge of having murdered George William Gordon. After the conclusion of the statement of the counsel for the prosecution and the examination of some of the witnesses, which occupied the greater part of two days, Sir Thomas Henry decided that the warrants should be issued. A separate application is to be made in the case of Mr. Eyre, who has expressed his willingness to place himself within the jurisdiction of the police-court. There seems reason to expect that not much time will be permitted to elapse before the trial itself, which promises to be one of the most important in modern days, is proceeded with.

DURING the recess the Poor-law Board has sent round a circular to the medical officers of the metropolitan workhouse infirmaries asking information as to the state of the infirmaries, their accommodation, need of accommodation, their defects, and the extent to which recovery from illness is retarded by those defects. The answers fully confirm all that the revelations of last year led us to believe with regard to these institutions. If there ever was a time when they served their purpose, that time is past. They are now altogether inadequate to their work, and must be supplanted by institutions of a wholly different order. They are not susceptible of satisfactory reform.

FOUR men, who, it was proved, had conspired to scuttle a ship, the *Severn*, which, with her freight, had been insured for £5,000 above her value, have been sentenced to various terms of penal servitude, varying from five years to twenty. The coolness with which they went to work, and the confidence with which they reckoned upon the complicity and secrecy of their agents, were shown on the trial to be something marvellous. There was very little doubt, too, that this was not the first time they had been associated in a similar transaction, and quite as little that the scuttling of ships is one of the most profitable branches of maritime trade.

THE manufacture of valentines is a branch of industry which is as capable of poisonous adulteration as the manufacture of pickles. The vulgarity of the pictures and the letterpress is disgraceful even to servantgism and the cads for whose delectation they are prepared. Some are constructed with a noisome malignity utterly destitute of point or fun; others are absolutely indecent, and it is difficult to imagine the order of mind capable of designing or conceiving them. Who are the authors of this gutter literature? The creatures, if discovered, should be run to earth like vermin.

A JUDGMENT of the Lords Justices has decided that debenture-holders of any line of railway have no hold upon the property of the line apart from its income or produce. They have their security in the "undertaking," and it has been generally supposed that under this term they are mortgagees of the whole property and effects of the company. But that is not so. The capital, the borrowed money, the surplus land, the permanent way, and rolling stock of the company are ingredients which enter into the composition of the "undertaking;" it is to them in a state of completion and operation that the term is applicable; and their produce "is the fund dedicated by the contract to secure and to pay the debt."

MR. LAWSON, the late Attorney-General for Ireland, is about to introduce a Bill to open the schools of anatomy, medicine, chemistry, and botany in Trinity College, Dublin, irrespective of the religious creeds of the students. This is a step in the right direction; but Mr. Lawson might go further, and bring his University into greater credit and popularity with Catholic Irishmen by removing all irritating distinctions between them and their Protestant associates. If this were done, a most effectual blow would be given to the advance of Cullenism and of bigotry.



THE Reform League has determined that the Ministerial statement to be delivered on Monday next shall not interfere with their proposed demonstration. The procession is to leave Trafalgar-square on Monday, at two o'clock, and proceed to the Agricultural Hall, Islington, through Pall-mall, St. James's-street, Piccadilly, Regent-street, Oxford-street, Langham-place, Portland-place, Park-crescent, Euston-road, and Pentonville-road. Colonel Dixon, who is to act as marshal-in-chief, will be assisted by deputy, divisional, and foot marshals.

In one of its "Occasional Notes," on the 4th instant, our contemporary the *Pall Mall Gazette* was fierce in censuring the use of the word "ritualistic," asserting that "ritual" was the correct expression, and going into a long argument to prove it. On the 6th, also in an "Occasional Note," the *Pall Mall Gazette* offends against the rule it had laid down, and talks of the "Broad Church or Ritualistic." If this is the way in which our contemporary treats its own teachings, by whom does it hope to have them respected?

#### OUR UNIVERSITY LETTER.

##### CAMBRIDGE.

THE result of the examination for the Smith's Prizes has attracted much attention here. These mathematical prizes are given to two of the best men among those who have just come out in the Mathematical Tripos, and although the style of the examination differs considerably from that of the Senate House examination, it is usually found that the examiners for the Smith's prizes arrive at much the same conclusions as the moderators have done. Natural philosophy enters largely into the examination for the prizes, and to be a member of Trinity College is an advantage (by direction of the founder's will) in case of proximate equality with another candidate; hence it happens sometimes that a Senior Wrangler who is comparatively weak in natural philosophy, and is not a member of Trinity, loses the first prize, and there is an example on record of his gaining neither of the two. The Senior Wrangler of the present year will go down to posterity as another example of the different conclusions arrived at by different sets of examiners. He was very easily senior, it is understood, and was the only man who got marks enough in the three days' preliminary examination to make him a Wrangler in case he had done nothing in the five days' examination which follows. The expected Senior Wrangler, whose health broke down last term, and thus prevented him from completely preparing himself for the examination, is said to have been second in the three days, but, as is now matter of notoriety, a serious accident made it impossible for him to enter the five days' examination, and so he appeared at the bottom of the list of honours, with *ægroratus* appended to his name. He was able, however, to undergo the shorter labour of the contest for the Smith's prizes, doing the papers as he lay propped up in bed, and writing out his work in pencil. In spite of these disadvantages, and in contradiction of the fact that so far as he went in the Senate-House examination he did not show himself the best prepared man, Mr. Miller, of St. Peter's, is announced as first Smith's prizeman. The second prize is awarded to the Second Wrangler, Mr. Clifford, of Trinity, who is understood to be a mathematician of much original genius. Thus the three highest men make a fair division of the honours for which they have competed, but every one must be sorry for the Senior Wrangler, that his triumph has not been of so complete a description as might have been wished, and is usually expected. It is fortunate that he was so undoubtedly and easily first in the Senate-House examination.

The undergraduate world had an excellent sermon last Sunday from the tutor of Trinity Hall. Considering the experience he has as tutor of the muscular college, he is a useful man for delivering an address on the manliness which is to be desired in those who have "put away childish things." He administered some remarkably keen thrusts, which must have pierced the armour of most of his hearers, no matter how idle or self-complacent; and not a few of his pithinesses would have been decided hits if spoken conversationally at the table of a combination room. The same preacher occupies the pulpit at St. Mary's again next Sunday, and probably he will be well attended, and, it is to be hoped, well attended to. Young men are beset with so many beguilements to idleness here, which come upon them in the form of temptations to follow a seemingly manly and independent course, that it is refreshing to hear a University preacher devote the time allotted to him to an examination of the inherent childishness of much that

is done in the name of manliness. The studious graduates have, for the most part, a sufficiently full share of the attention of the preachers at St. Mary's, and they may be well contented to sit by now and then and hear a sermon that in one sense, though not the ordinary one, aims above their heads.

At the congregation to-day (Thursday), two of the new Colonial Bishops are to receive the degree of Doctor in Theology, commonly called D.D.; these are the Bishops of Dunedin and Victoria, and the Deputy Public Orator will be called upon to perform his function, Mr. W. G. Clark having obtained leave to absent himself from the University throughout the present Term. Even Mr. Clark, himself, apparently found it difficult to strike out any brilliant points from such a subject as the frost-bound diocese of Rupert's Land, and could only turn its length and breadth and cold into choice Latin, so that his deputy may be supposed to have a difficult subject in New Zealand and Hong Kong.

At a recent congregation the thanks of the Senate were formally given to our High Steward, Lord Powis, for his gift of an annual gold medal for Latin hexameter verse. It is always a gratifying sign that the course of liberality towards the University which past ages have seen has not come wholly to an end. Benefactors have probably been somewhat scared off the field by the conduct of the Commissioners, who treated, or would have treated, the terms of old bequests as dead letters, except so far as the conveyance of the money to the University was concerned; and no one now would be likely to found a Fellowship for the special benefit of a particular county or school, for instance. If any one did indulge in such a benefaction, he would not sleep easily in his grave, knowing that keen eyes were upon his money, and would infallibly rob his county or his school of the advantages he had bestowed upon it. At the same time, the University is this Term entering into the fruition of £2,000, Three per Cents., given twenty years ago by Mr. John Barnes, of the Middle Temple, subject to the life of his sister, and not to come into the hands of the University till her death; and this money is burdened with the stipulation that the scholar who receives the income shall have been educated at Christ's Hospital, St. Paul's School, or Merchant Taylors' School, and shall have come to Cambridge direct from one of those schools. If no candidate so circumstanced shall seem fit to be elected, then, the founder directs, the scholarship shall, "for that turn only," be thrown open to all undergraduates in their first year. This is a curious time for inaugurating new close scholarships, and it is a matter of speculation how long the foundation will remain a close one.

A letter in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of Monday last calls attention to an interesting question—the relative expenses of lodgings in the town and rooms in college. The items of expenditure under the two heads are evidently different in Oxford from those that obtain here, and, on the whole, the balance is far less in favour of lodgings with us than it seems to be in Oxford. Thus crockery, table-linen, ironmongery, glass, &c., are put down in "Economy's" letter at £6 a year in college, and *nil* in lodgings; whereas with us the man in lodgings is expected to provide all such things, even to brooms for sweeping the rooms, and slop-pails, and bedroom ware, and candlesticks. Again, lodgings at Oxford are put down at £20 a year, and college rooms at £15; whereas in Cambridge lodging-house people are asking £10 and £12 a term, and rooms so low as £6 are small and out of the way. Fifteen pounds for college rooms is in most of our colleges a much higher rate than twenty pounds for lodgings. In items where "custom" exercises its fatal sway, no doubt the man in lodgings has a better chance of getting off with only the necessary expense, than his contemporary in college; this is probably the explanation of the vast difference under such a head as "milk," shown in the statement of "Economy," £3. 9s. being the cost in college, and 14s. 7d. in lodgings. The ordinary plan in Cambridge is, to have bread and butter and milk from the college butteries, whether a man is in college or in lodgings, and in such cases the purveyor can quote custom as well to one as to the other. The item "servants" in college should not amount to ten guineas a year, as it does in "Economy's" tables, besides the £4. 10s. which appears as "tips." There is nothing so difficult to speak definitely of, as the necessary or probable expenses of undergraduates. It is a question constantly proposed to tutors, how much must a man have to live comfortably upon? and the answer is usually a very rough estimate, most probably, calculated on the principle of leaving a good margin. "Economy's" letter will be useful to inquirers on this subject. It does seem as if there must be something wrong somewhere, when, in spite of all the benefactions to colleges for building purposes,



and for ordinary maintenance, the "pensioner," or "com-moner," as the case may be, who is annually called upon to express his solemn gratitude for all the benefactors of his college have done for him, finds his expenses amount to a pound a day for mere necessities during residence, to say nothing of travelling, private tuition, charities, amusements, or even such necessities—for a civilized person who is supposed to read—as books and tailors' bills.

An interesting event is to take place on Friday and Saturday of next week, when the candidates for the Regius Professorship of Greek are to read disquisitions on classical subjects in the divinity schools. Each of the four candidates (Dr. Kennedy, Mr. Shilleto, Mr. Cope, and Mr. Holmes) is bound by statute to occupy an hour in the discussion of the selected subject. The candidates stated to the Council, a few days ago, three subjects each, specifying the particular subject they would severally prefer to take, and the Council accepted these subjects. Dr. Kennedy takes the Prometheus Vincetus, Mr. Cope the Ethics, Mr. Shilleto some part of Plato, and Mr. Holmes, Pindar.

### FINE ARTS.

#### THE LIONS IN TRAFALGAR SQUARE.

AFTER an age of doubts, of discussion, and of delay so tediously prolonged that the very jokes on the subject grew stale and palled upon the rudest sense of fun, Sir Edwin Landseer's lions have arrived in Trafalgar-square and taken up their position at the foot of the Nelson column. It is so long since our talented and popular painter first received his commission to execute this work, that one almost forgets how he became intrusted with it. His knowledge of brute form is certainly greater than that of any living English artist: perhaps greater than that of any other painter in the world. That is, of course, a great deal to say. It is more to say that Landseer's skill as an amateur in this particular department of art was at the time he was selected for the work probably more valuable than the professed skill of any contemporary sculptor. But the highest praise we can give him in this matter is to say that he has done better than could have been expected of him, and that his lions, as lions, are, even after allowance has been made for a few notable drawbacks, as good portraits of the *genus* as exist anywhere in bronze.

Yet, in spite of all this, we cannot hail the work as quite satisfactory. Even judged by the light of nature alone it has its faults, and faults which we believe any observant visitor to the Zoological Gardens might detect. It is difficult to accept the lumpy, shapeless modelling of the front legs of these lions as illustrative, or even typical, of a feline limb. The formidable thews and muscles which help the noble brute to seize and hold its prey should surely be defined with more sharpness and precision than Sir Edwin has cared to indicate in these figures. Again, his treatment of the lower jaw appears to lack the savage majesty which specially belongs to that feature. This gives the facial outline a *prim* rather than a stern expression, while the tufts of the mane are in more than one instance sketched rather than studied with the precision which the subject, as well as the material, demands. On these points of mere portraiture, however, we speak with all deference concerning the work of an artist whose aim has been pre-eminently naturalistic, and who may be reasonably accredited with a better eye for correct drawing than the majority of his critics.

The question of taste is a different matter. There, the public may fairly enter the lists with Landseer or any other member of his craft, for *design*, in the monumental sense of the word, is not in this country made a part of the painter's education. We might go further and say that British sculptors are often but little better taught. Who has ever recognised in the Duke of Wellington's equestrian statue, in the Guards' Memorial, or in any of the inventions which disfigure this metropolis, from drinking-fountains upwards, a single element of beauty which does not depend for popular success on the fact that it is a mere transcript of natural form in bronze or marble? Yet this was not the secret of that grandeur which delights us in the Sphinx of ancient Egypt, the winged bulls of Nineveh, the figured metopes of the Parthenon, or the noble imagery of the Middle Ages. In all those types of ancient art, widely though they differ from each other both in character and execution, the sculptor did not merely strive to *illustrate*: he typified, symbolized, or aimed at some ideal of beauty, but never copied, in the modern sense of the word. Even the figures of the Panathenaic procession, though themselves faultless in drawing, are helped neither by perspective nor accessories to realize an actual scene. It is no prose narrative but a stately epic that commands our attention. Still less in any good age of art were the forms of lower creation ever literally reproduced in stone or marble. The red granite lion (which dates, we believe, from the time of King Amenophis III.) in the British Museum, is an excellent specimen of the monumental treatment of animal form. So is the traditional wolf of the Roman capitol; so are the noble beasts which support the columns of Niccolò Pisano's pulpit at Siena; so is the celebrated Florentine boar. In all these examples we find the leading facts of animal nature indicated:

strength, grimness, dignity, and even grace—but they are conventional *types*, not portraits, of any living creature. Landseer's lions, on the contrary, might have been studied in the Regent's Park just after feeding time. Their hind quarters, indeed, are muscular to excess and convey a sense of power; but a good photograph of the animal might have done this and no one would have dreamt of calling it high art. The work is an example of delineative skill, but not of imagination or design. Might not a little variety of attitude have been introduced with advantage? Two distinct designs at least must have been made, for, to insure symmetry in the composition, the animal's heads are turned alternately to the right and left, and their tails are arranged after a similar fashion. But the action—or rather the want of action—in the fore-paws is repeated in each case, while portions of the hair, &c., appear to be reproduced line for line (without the least deviation) on every animal. This is in accordance neither with the ethos of the antique nor with mediæval precedent. Modern designers, in endeavouring to realize the true principles of ancient art, continually mistake the letter for the spirit. It would have been clearly wrong to vary the action of these lions in any important degree—to have designed two of them, for instance, in an erect posture, while the others were recumbent. That they should be of uniform size seems also, from an æsthetic point of view, an absolute condition. But with these admitted restrictions, what a field was still left for creative fancy! Changes in what artists call the *motive* of each figure might have been effectively managed without at all compromising the *euphonia* and severity of the composition. The grip and pose of the limbs need not have been quite identical in any two of the beasts. A lion *couchant* does not always extend his front legs apart at one and the same angle with his body. He may cross them or double up one paw. His hind legs are as often thrown together lazily beneath his belly (showing the padded under-surface of one foot) as they are kept rigidly right and left of the body. The tail is no unimportant feature. It may lash the brute's stalwart flanks in a dozen different curves. Such variations as these would have been perfectly consistent with the dignity of monumental sculpture. A modern naturalist probably regards with contempt heraldic symbols of animal form, but the old herald painter at least left his fancy free for detail. No two feline supporters of the same arms ever bore a more accurate resemblance to one another than Landseer's lions. Yet Landseer's lions cannot plead conventionalism as an excuse for monotony. They are modelled after nature, but one model has served for all four. We should have preferred a reverse of these conditions—a little less sameness and a little more abstraction.

There is still one more objection to these figures, which, being more obvious, should perhaps have been mentioned first. Though well-proportioned to the height of the Nelson Column, they are a trifle too large for the pedestals on which they rest. This would, perhaps, have been of less importance if both figure and pedestal had been of one material. But the bronze lions rest immediately on a granite plinth without the intermediate slab of metal which one might have expected to unite one with the other. The want of plan-space is therefore more apparent, and looks like a real oversight, which it would be difficult now to remedy. But, notwithstanding solecisms, artistic and practical, it is impossible to deny that of their kind these specimens of decorative sculpture are finer than anything which has yet been set up in London. They do not belong to the highest order of art, but they are the best which we can at present produce. To improve upon the design of such objects, we shall have to wait, perhaps, a quarter of a century. Meanwhile, we may congratulate ourselves on the long-desired completion of our national monument in honour of a hero whose name no Englishman can utter without a feeling of national pride.

### MUSIC.

At the first subscription concert of Mr. Henry Leslie's choir, on Thursday week, the programme included four fine madrigals of the old English school, by Purcell, Morley, Wilbye, and Saville; but these bore by far too small a proportion to the number of new part-songs and imitation madrigals introduced, several for the first time of performance. The madrigal is a form of musical art that can no more be reproduced than the Shaksperian drama, the poetry of Chaucer, Gothic architecture, or any of the many other special modes of expression that belong to a particular age and period of thought, and have been thoroughly wrought out by the master-minds of the past. The mere externals may be imitated, and sometimes are very cleverly imitated; but the impulse and the spirit which prompted the original manifestations can scarcely again be evoked—other forms and modes of expression and habits of thought arise which can never find their true and free development in a style that has become obsolete. One of the most successful of these imitations was Mr. Pearsall's "Take heed, ye shepherd swains"—an extremely clever piece of diatonic part-writing in the madrigal style, but wanting the life and reality of the old specimens given on the same evening. New madrigals and part songs were produced by Mr. Barnsby, Professor Sterndale Bennett, Mr. Henry Smart, and Mr. Henry Leslie—but by far the best novelty of the evening was the latter gentleman's duet, "The Fan"—an extremely clever and characteristic piece in bolero time, containing some very effective vocal writing, and much of the real Spanish character. It was admirably sung by Mesdames Lemmens-Sherrington and Sainton-Dolby, and was encored. This duet should find its way into many drawing-rooms. Mr. Leslie's choir has now attained so special a



position by the excellence and refinement of its performances, that we cannot but think he would do well to increase the number of his performances and to spread them over a larger portion of the year, so as to keep them almost permanently before the public. Such choral singing is scarcely to be heard elsewhere but in Germany, and it would be an anomaly if there were not an ample and remunerative field in London for concerts so special and so good of their kind. We would stipulate, however, for fewer novelties in the programme. There is an almost exhaustless mine in the productions of the old Italian and English madrigal writers; and the exquisite part-songs of modern German composers, most of them published with English translations of the text. Then we ought to have from such an institution frequent opportunities of hearing some of the grand old Italian church music for unaccompanied voices. Bach's motetts, too, should not be allowed to lie in total disuse. In fact, the materials at command are sufficient for many concerts during the year; and such music, with no other opportunity for hearing it so performed in London, should attract a large public and have an elevating influence on the general taste. For Wednesday next Mr. Leslie has announced a special performance—a Mendelssohn concert, to include the Italian symphony, the noble music to "Antigone," the violin concerto played by Herr Joachim, and the overture to "Ruy Blas." With such a programme, a full orchestra, and a reinforced chorus, the concert must prove an attractive one.

The performance of Handel's "Judas Maccabæus" by the Sacred Harmonic Society yesterday (Friday) week, was a very fine and satisfactory one, although deprived of the advantage of Mr. Sims Reeves' promised appearance. In the absence of this gentleman, from illness, Mr. Cummings sang the principal tenor music, adding another to the many instances in which he has efficiently replaced Mr. Reeves. That Mr. Cummings is a thoroughly prepared and well-trained artist he has often proved, but never more palpably than by his singing, on this occasion, of those trying declamatory songs, "Call forth thy powers," and "Sound an alarm," which he gave with such energy and excellent style as to call forth vehement applause, even from an audience accustomed to the masterly performance of Mr. Sims Reeves. The other solos were given by Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Miss R. Henderson, Madame Sainton-Dolby, and Mr. Patey. The choruses went admirably, as is generally the case under the guidance of Mr. Costa, to whom are owing the extra accompaniments added to Handel's score; written with a masterly knowledge of choral effect, but an occasional too great interference with Handel's original trumpet parts.

The Popular Concert of Monday last brought back Madame Schumann, who is playing her best, which means the highest order of intellectual interpretation of great music. The admirable executive powers of Madame Schumann, her thorough command of manipulative difficulties, are with her only the means to an end, the realization of the spirit and sentiment of the composer in the work to be rendered. All feeling of exhibitiv display is with her, subordinated to the reverence with which she approaches the interpretation of a great work; in which she becomes so absorbed by identification of spirit with the composer, as almost to lose the external perception of an audience. This power alone it is which can make a great actor, singer, or instrumental performer; and in this respect, perhaps, Madame Schumann is scarcely equalled by any living pianist. Her performance on Monday of Beethoven's romantic and ideal solo sonata in D minor, and of the same composer's seldom-played trio in E flat (from Op. 70), was impressed throughout with passion and poetry of feeling, and energy and refinement of execution. The influence of a great artist was satisfactorily reflected by the torrents of applause with which each of Madame Schumann's performances was greeted. The two romances, by Schumann, for violin (Herr Joachim) and pianoforte, pleased sufficiently to show that this much maligned composer is beginning to find a large audience here who will admire his best music in spite of the angry denunciations of certain critics. The time, we believe, has come, when Madame Schumann might safely give some special performances of the pianoforte works of her late husband, especially of his exquisite smaller solo pieces. Such a scheme should attract large numbers to hear this music played as it can scarcely be by any other hands.

#### THE LONDON THEATRES.

MR. T. W. ROBERTSON has left original comedy, in which he has highly distinguished himself as an author, and has entered the lists at the Princess's Theatre with a sensational drama, called "Shadow Tree Shaft," which can hardly advance, though it may not injure his reputation. The title suggests a domestic drama of mining life—a story full of rustic character and that tragedy of humble life which is found in novels like those written by George Eliot. Those, however, who go to the theatre, impressed with the literary ability of the author, expecting a work of this kind, will be grievously disappointed; for "Shadow Tree Shaft" is little more than a reproduction of such old stage materials as the Jacobite and domestic dramas. Its story is one represented a hundred times—that of a man who is hunted by Hanoverian soldiers, and is saved by his faithful tenantry, and its characters are all more or less well-known stage-puppets. It differs, however, widely from the dramas popular at the minor theatres, by being free from a comic underplot, as it is called, in which a waiting-maid and a serving-man make love in "carpenter's scenes" while the "tableaux" are being prepared. The incidents of mining life introduced give an air of novelty to the drama—for

mining scenes are not very common on the stage—but they look as if they had been dragged in to aid the original story.

The writing of this drama exhibits traces of Mr. Robertson's literary ability, but it is far below the level of "Society" and "Ours." Here and there the characters indulge in pompous language, not at all characteristic, and the dialect parts are either carelessly written or carelessly spoken. The chief comic part is a copy of Dr. Pangloss, and the villain of the drama is uncommonly stagey. One act—the second—ends with a very excellent and powerful situation, but the interest of the drama is frittered away in the third act, because the author has been weak enough to play too long with the complications arising out of the accidental resemblance of two men to each other. The great "sensational" scene, "the fight in the bucket," as it is called, is rather weakly led up to, and the drama will owe much of its success to its scenery. Mr. F. Lloyds is a scene-painter remarkable for his care and artistic feeling, and he has given this play three excellent pictures—the Mine, the Black Country, and a Fir Coppice in Winter. The acting is level and sensible, rather than striking, much depending upon the great likeness between Mr. Charles Verner and Mr. H. Forrester. Mr. Vining has a part demanding nothing more than good animal spirits, and the ladies, Miss Montague and Miss Katherine Rodgers, who act with grace and feeling, are able to produce effects by their great personal attractions. Mr. Robertson would probably have succeeded in producing a better play, if he had not attempted to make a fusion of comedy and melodrama.

#### SCIENCE.

THE following extraordinary facts regarding the vital power of certain seeds to resist high temperatures have been communicated to the French Academy by M. F. A. Pouchet. Having been credibly informed that, at the manufacturing town of Elbeuf, it was well known that seeds mingled with the wool received from Brazil, vegetated after being subjected to ebullition for four hours, M. Pouchet resolved to test a statement so much at variance with all the ideas of physiologists, as to be regarded by him as incredible. The universally received doctrine at the present day being that subjection to boiling water altered the tissues and destroyed the life of all organized beings. Contact with boiling water for a few seconds suffices to destroy not merely the germinative faculty of the spores of mucedines, but to totally disorganize their textures; and, according to Professor Wymann of Cambridge, the same statement applies to the spores of the *Algæ* generally. The seeds in question from Brazil belong to an American *medicago*; after subjecting a number of them to ebullition for four hours their bulk was palpably augmented; they had become glairy, and had every appearance of having become disorganized. M. Pouchet sowed these seeds in the laboratory of the museum at Rouen, without any expectation of seeing them germinate. To his great astonishment, however, after a period which varied from ten to twenty days, the seeds grew, and he has repeated the experiment again and again with every precaution and obtained the same result, so that the fact must be regarded as established beyond doubt. Careful scrutiny, however, of the mass of seeds which had been subjected to boiling water, detected here and there, hidden amongst the rest, a few seeds which neither in volume, form, nor colour, had undergone the least alteration. Some organic peculiarity appeared to have absolutely protected them against the slightest infiltration of water. Experiment soon showed that it was only the seeds which had remained intact that germinated, and not the others. Thus, the law announced by physiologists suffers no exception, and if seeds germinate after immersion in boiling water for four hours, it is only because their integument has the power of remaining impervious to the liquid for this period, and thus protecting the embryo and cotyledons from its action.

Among the important discoveries in photography of M. Niepce de St. Victor, one of the most extraordinary is that a surface of paper exposed during a certain time to the light of the sun receives a photogenic power which it retains for a certain time, enabling it, when placed in contact with a sensitive surface in the most complete darkness, to produce, by means of its stored-up light, or light's energy, the usual photographic effect caused by direct light. M. Niepce de St. Victor has long been indefatigable in his attempts to obtain the natural colours in the photographic image, and has recently communicated to the French Academy of Sciences some very important and interesting facts, the result of his latest researches. M. Becquerel, as is well known, long ago succeeded in obtaining the colours of the spectrum in a silver plate prepared with chlorine; but the colours were evanescent, and would not bear exposure to daylight. M. Niepce has experimented with a large doll attired in the most showy colours, and has succeeded in obtaining a photographic picture of his model, in which all the colours correspond with those of the sitter, and which shows distinctly every separate hue of the dress and decorations, but all tinged with a pale rose colour, as if viewed through a glass slightly tinted with this hue. The eyes, however, soon become used to the effect; and were the picture but durable, a great stride in photography would be accomplished. Unfortunately, however, though considerably more permanent than the results obtained by M. Becquerel's process, no means has yet been discovered of preventing them from gradually fading under continued exposure to light. M. Niepce exhibited a coloured drawing representing a French Guardsman, which he had reproduced. One of the black gaiters



had been cut out, and a piece of white paper substituted. The black hat and the other gaiter were distinctly shown in the plate, whilst the white gaiter was perfectly reproduced in white. Some of the results obtained by M. Niepce in some experiments suggested by M. Chevreul, tend to throw doubt on the generally-received opinion that black is a mere negation, the result of the absence of colour, and point to the conclusion that it is a positive colour having a definite chemical action of its own like other colours.

M. A. Douné has communicated the following experiment on the question of the spontaneous generation of infusorial animalcules to the Academy of Sciences. He took some pullets' eggs and made a small opening at their summit, pierced the yolk by means of a stylet previously heated to redness, and allowed about a third of the contents of the egg to escape; filled the space with boiling distilled water, and closed the opening hermetically with melted wax. The eggs were placed in his study, the temperature of which varied from 62.6 Fahr. to 75.2. At the expiration of five days he removed the button of wax and examined the matter of the eggs with the microscope, and found it swarming with vibrions of great agility. M. Douné observes that it cannot be reasonably admitted that the germs of these vibrions pre-exist in the matter of the egg, and that he has shown they never develop themselves in eggs allowed to decompose naturally.

M. Mene has communicated to the Academy of Sciences a method which, after many experiments, he found to be the simplest and most satisfactory for determining the quantity of nitrogen in organic substances for commercial purposes. The matter to be analyzed, subdivided as much as possible, and saturated with a solution of caustic alkali, was introduced into a clay retort filled with caustic potash with the fragments of which it was mixed. Heat was then applied commencing at the upper part. The end of the retort was connected with a glass tube plunged in hydrochloric acid, in order to absorb the ammoniacal gas disengaged during the reaction of the potash on the organic matter. The amount of nitrogen was obtained by the process of MM. Will and Warrentz, which consists in precipitating the ammoniacal salt by bichlorate of platinum. The weight of the platinum is obtained by calcination, and from this the amount of nitrogen calculated.

## MONEY AND COMMERCE.

### THE MONEY MARKET.

FRIDAY MORNING.

THE rates of discount continue to decline. During the whole of the past week the charge for good bills has varied but little from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and the supply of money has been far in excess of the demand. Yesterday the Bank reduced their minimum from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., at which it was fixed on the 20th December last, to 3 per cent. It had been for some time apparent that this change would take place within a brief interval, the only question being whether it might be deferred until the flow of gold was once more diverted into, instead of from, the Bank. Although the specie movement has latterly become more favourable, the withdrawals during the past week have on balance exceeded £50,000; but it may be assumed that a large amount of coin has returned from internal circulation. The restriction of trade, and consequent dearth of employment in many districts of the country, necessarily limit the ordinary requirements for the circulating medium. In the autumn of 1865 the position was reversed. The great increase in trade caused by the cessation of the American war produced, on the other hand, so large a demand for gold and bank-notes for daily use, that the Bank found its reserves falling daily, and was obliged to put up the terms of discount as a remedy—a course much to the general inconvenience of the public. Now the reserve is increasing so rapidly that the directors are reducing their rate with a view to attract business. It does not seem likely, however, that they will be over successful. As fast as the official minimum goes down, so do the changes in the open market. As far as profit is concerned, the Bank might perhaps have remained advantageously at  $3\frac{1}{2}$ , or even 4 per cent. Some years ago, in fact, a similar policy was adopted. It created, however, so great an outcry that it had to be abandoned. There are numberless contracts entered into between one merchant and another, both at home and abroad, which depend upon the Bank rate, so that it is not merely necessary, but just, that the latter should approximate as nearly as possible to the terms in the general market. For example, a trader in London receiving consignments of cotton, corn, or other goods, authorizes his agent at the port of entry—say at Liverpool—to dispose of them, and pass the proceeds in account to his credit. This frequently happens, and thus the correspondent at the latter town may have a considerable balance in hand belonging to his principal. By the ordinary custom of the trade, interest is allowed on this sum at the current Bank rate, or perhaps a fraction under, as may be arranged. Now, it would be manifestly unfair that, because the Bank persisted in maintaining

their charge at a point considerably above the general market, the agent should thereby be the loser. Of course it will be said that in that case fresh conditions might be made, dependent upon the current value of money. True; but as regards the home trade, such an arrangement would be productive of a vast amount of inconvenience and endless disputes. How could the question be decided as to the proper allowance? If by referring to the daily newspapers, it will be seen that hardly two of them agree. There may be the difference of an eighth or a quarter per cent., and an eighth or a quarter per cent. is of importance in dealing with sums of fifty or a hundred thousand pounds. It is obvious that the general convenience is best studied by having some fixed standard to go by. This is afforded in a practical way by the Bank rate of discount. It presents the double advantage of varying with the market generally, without experiencing mere fractional changes from almost hour to hour.

With regard to foreign contracts the difficulty is increased. The same reasons that lead our English merchants to leave large balances in the hands of their home correspondents prevail equally in the case of consignments from traders in, for instance, Brazil or the Levant, and even in France and Germany. To ask them to regulate their transactions upon the basis of quotation for money in the open market would be answered by a direct refusal. The former would be at once suspicious that some unfair advantage was intended; and indeed, this view is precisely so much in accordance with the feelings of too many of their class, that it is almost impossible it would not prevail. The more civilized inhabitants of France and Germany would not be similarly misled, but even they might possibly feel a little uneasy. Granted the perfect integrity of their London correspondents, and that the capital temporarily deposited with them is as safe as in their own strongboxes, still there remains something to be said. Business is business, and its object is of course to produce the greatest legitimate returns. The temptation to give less interest than the market warrants would be suggested at once. The Germans, in particular, would feel doubtful. A Frankfurt banker can only be guided, if he thinks he is imposed upon, by the opinions of his fellow-countrymen in London, and such is the competition in trade, that he would possibly receive their statements with less reliance than ought justly to be given. Thus nine times out of ten, if an arrangement were based upon the current value of money, he would feel a constant misgiving that he was allowed the lowest rate, or charged the highest, as the balance on either side might vary. When, however, the Bank minimum is stipulated, there is no room for doubt. The rate is public, official, never changed without due announcement, and is hence accepted abroad as the true criterion of the value of money. It is for these reasons it may be incidentally mentioned that the Bank charge last summer of 10 per cent. had for more than three months so powerful and prejudicial an effect. Foreigners seem incapable of understanding the difference between public and private action, and that the latter often neutralizes the former.

Every few days a report is circulated that some new foreign loan is about to be introduced. Spain and Portugal have latterly been the nations selected. As regards the former, the settlement of the certificate (or confiscated coupons) is an indispensable preliminary, but this will probably turn out no great obstacle. It is certain that the Madrid Government are so absolutely in want of funds that they are not likely to hesitate in effecting some arrangement. The falling through of the Paris Loan lately contracted with Messrs. Fould, will also not improbably hasten the desire to come forward again on our market. Should this happen, it is to be hoped that the English subscribers will take care to be properly and securely guaranteed. Too much capital has already been wasted in Spain to warrant unlimited trust. With reference to Portugal, the chief drawbacks are an expenditure far above revenue, and a recurring series of loans dating annually for several years past. On the other hand, Portugal cannot be charged with the same sort of confiscation that has happened in Spain. She has, it is true, "readjusted" her debt, to the great loss of English bond-holders, but the affair was amicably settled, and the new arrangement has been strictly carried out.

Our joint-stock banks are still prospering. During a part of the half-year, ending the 31st December last, money was low, but that was more than compensated by few or no bad debts. The dividends declared have been again high. The following are some of the rates per cent. per annum:—London and Westminster, 32; London Joint-Stock, 25; Union, 20; and City, 10. Probably they would have been still higher but for the diminution in trade, and consequent want of business.



## REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

## MR. DISRAELI'S SPEECHES.\*

ALTHOUGH these speeches appear under the editorship of Mr. Corry, we cannot be mistaken in supposing that they are reprinted at the instance of Mr. Disraeli himself. Unless that were the case their literary sponsor would hardly take upon himself to declare that "they represent the opinions of a party, and there is the highest authority for declaring that, with scarce exceptions, the views which they represent were, after due deliberation, adopted by every eminent man who has since sat in the councils of Lord Derby, and by every leading country gentleman of the time." No one but the Chancellor of the Exchequer himself can be that "highest authority," on the strength of which these addresses are issued to the world as a body of orthodox Conservative doctrine—the Bible as it were of a great party. Interesting as they would be as the expression of Mr. Disraeli's individual opinions, their importance would be immeasurably increased by this announcement, if we were able to accept it without very considerable reserve. It is, however, impossible to do so without forgetting or ignoring many passages of recent political history, and the speeches and writings of some of the most eminent of the Conservative leaders. We do not, indeed, know how far the progress of conversion may have gone amongst the members of the present Cabinet. But we cannot forget that Mr. Walpole and Mr. Henley seceded from Lord Derby's second Administration expressly on the ground that they disapproved of Mr. Disraeli's scheme of Reform; that Lord Cranborne subsequently criticised his policy with the utmost severity and even asperity; and that both that noble Lord and General Peel have since expressed opinions on the subject which are utterly irreconcilable with those of the leader under whom they profess to serve. Outside the Cabinet, the divergence between the views of Mr. Disraeli and of the country gentlemen is even more marked. While he has ever been ready to deride the doctrine of "finality," and has constantly endeavoured, with more perseverance than success, to show that the Tories are the proper persons to undertake the reconstruction, not only of our navy, but of our constitution, his principal supporters have cheered to the echo the arguments of Mr. Lowe in favour of letting well alone, and have on every occasion manifested the utmost disinclination to entertain any propositions of organic change. Under these circumstances we cannot help thinking that Mr. Disraeli has somewhat deceived himself as to the extent to which he has succeeded in penetrating the mind of "the stupid party" (as Mr. Mill calls them), with his subtle and ingenious speculations. They may lend a docile, although an unwilling support to his measures; they may listen with a silence capable of being construed into assent to his elaborate dissertations; but we suspect that the astonishment with which they regard his performances on the oratorical tight-rope is not altogether one of admiration. They are obliged to accept him as the "mystery man" of the party, but if they take the potions which he compounds for them, they betray by their wry faces the disgust with which many of them are swallowed. The difference between them on this particular question is really not to be bridged over by the vague assurances of Mr. Corry. The territorial Conservatives do not want to meddle with the constitution as it has been handed down to them. It is quite good enough for their purposes, because it guarantees them class ascendancy, and they do not see that that is a thing which cannot last. On the other hand, we do not hesitate to say that in one sense Mr. Disraeli is a genuine Parliamentary Reformer. He has no broad sympathy with popular principles. He has no high sense of political justice. So far as we can judge from these speeches, or from his writings, he has no wish to give the House of Commons a really popular character. But, on the other hand, he has few prejudices, and no sympathy with a purely obstructive apathy. He finds it expedient to affect a respect, but he has no superstitious reverence, for the British Constitution as he finds it. It is not a bad constitution as things go, but it is not so good as it might have been had he been consulted as to its construction; and he evidently enjoys the idea of taking it to pieces and putting it together again according to the political philosophy of Bolingbroke and Coningsby.

Whatever we may think of their claims to consideration as the manifesto of a party, there can be no doubt that Mr. Disraeli's speeches on reform are well worthy of attention. They are evidently the result of much thought, and they evince a complete acquaintance with the subject in all its details. When he speaks on financial subjects the Chancellor of the Exchequer always gives us the impression of a victim to elaborate "cram." We always feel a doubt whether he knows more than he has got up for the occasion. We tremble at the thought of the havoc which a sudden and well-directed cross-examination might make with his carefully-studied and well-arranged propositions. He does not, like Mr. Gladstone, move easily amidst a crowd of familiar topics. But on parliamentary reform he is evidently at home, and whether he be right or wrong, it is clear that he cannot be successfully encountered by any one who is not a master of the subject. We willingly make this admission, because it is perhaps the only one which we can make in his favour. Although they are singularly able, these speeches are also, it must be confessed, singularly dull. They do not betray

a trace of that warmth and earnestness of feeling which so great a topic might be expected to evoke even from the unsympathetic nature of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. They are ingenious and elaborate, but they are cold and lifeless. We have looked through them in vain for a single passage of high eloquence or generous thought. The speaker occupies throughout the position of an engineer looking at a machine which he proposes to reconstruct and improve, rather than that of the citizen of a free country discussing its most vital interests. He stands as it were apart from and outside his subject; he is not filled with and inspired by it. The result is an unmistakable heaviness, which is but slightly redeemed by the rhetorical fireworks, and the squibs and crackers of sarcasm, amidst which he makes a telling exit. Nor is this heaviness inconsistent with a curious flightiness and a singular tendency to what we must call fantastic views of politics. Mr. Disraeli is not satisfied with sound views; he must also have startling views. He will have novelty at any expense, and the consequence is that he is constantly getting out of the region of practical politics, into that of baseless hypothesis or extravagant fancy. As one instance of this tendency, we may take his theory that the constitution of England was a monarchy modified by estates of the realm, that is by privileged classes who are invested with those privileges for the advantage of the community, that the Reform Act put an end to that state of things, and that the great problem now is to "reconstitute the estate of the Commons,"—that is, to reconstitute some mythical body rather than simply to enfranchise those who are able and entitled to discharge the functions of citizenship. Again we find him, in the course of his speech on the Bill of 1859, predicting that if the suffrage were extended, men would be returned by the large constituencies of great wealth and of mature age, that they would be unable to carry on the executive of the country, that we should have to fall back on the bureaucratic system, and should find ourselves, after all our struggles, in the same position from which we had to extricate ourselves in 1640. Once again we have him defending the retention of the small borough of Arundel, because its member happened to be the only Catholic returned by an English constituency. We might multiply instances; but these are sufficient to illustrate our meaning. The fact is, that Mr. Disraeli is not one man but two—and perhaps this is true of most of his race. The practical and the speculative parts of his nature are not fused together, but exist side by side without mingling. Like the hero of Thackeray's parody on Coningsby, he spends half his time picking up halfpence by selling old clothes and oranges in the streets, and the other half revelling in a sham oriental palace of fabulous splendour, situated somewhere between Holywell-street and Wych-street.

We cannot, of course, in these columns enter into any description of Mr. Disraeli's political opinions, nor is the space at our command sufficient to enable us to follow him, even in the most cursory manner, over the large field which he traverses in this volume. We can do little more than notice its contents sufficiently to apprise our readers of what they have to expect. It comprises twenty-six speeches, or parts of speeches, commencing with one delivered on a motion of Mr. Hume's in 1848, and concluding with one on Mr. Walpole's amendment (moved in committee on Earl Russell's Reform Bill), in June, 1860. So far as we have been able to discover from a hasty examination of "Hansard," we have every word that Mr. Disraeli has uttered on Reform in the House of Commons during this period; nor have we any reason to doubt the fidelity with which the speeches are reproduced. They have obviously not been subjected to unfair revision; for in that case some passages, which even the right hon. gentleman would admit to be blemishes, would certainly have been introduced. No one, for instance, could have found fault with the editor if he had omitted the unfortunate reference to Mr. Gladstone's boyish Toryism in the speech on Lord Grosvenor's amendment last year; and the fact that he has not done so is a tolerably good proof that nothing we should desire to see retained has been left out. So far as substantial opinions go, there was, indeed, no temptation, because there was no need to do anything of the kind; for whatever contrasts we might find between the candidate for High Wycombe in 1833 and the Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1867, these speeches are thoroughly consistent with each other. They are all penetrated by the idea that the great thing is to set up a balance of power between the different classes of the State. They are all occupied with suggestions as to the best mode of effecting this; or with proofs that one or other of the Liberal schemes tended to overthrow it. They are alike free from prejudice against the working classes; but they are equally destitute of any faith in the people as a whole. In domestic, as in international politics, Mr. Disraeli appears to regard a state of war as the normal one; and the problem which he desires to solve is that of enabling every one to defend himself against his neighbour rather than that of inducing all to co-operate together as friends. Addressing himself to the question in this spirit, it is no wonder that he arrives at conclusions very different from those which Mr. Gladstone reaches from entirely opposite premises. If any one indeed wishes to compare the two statesmen who now hold the foremost places in the House of Commons, they cannot do better than read this volume, together with that containing Mr. Gladstone's speeches, which we lately reviewed. We cannot of course affect to think that those who do will arrive at the same conclusions. Party prepossessions will probably be stronger in most men than purely critical instincts. But, so far as we can judge, the impression they ought to leave is, that while the rival leaders are equally distinguished for ample knowledge and close grasp of details, Mr. Gladstone bears away the palm not less in massive reasoning than

\* Parliamentary Reform: a Series of Speeches on that Subject Delivered in the House of Commons by the Right Hon. B. Disraeli (1848-66). Reprinted (by permission) from "Hansard's Debates." Edited by Montagu Corry, B.A. London: Longmans.



in power of eloquence and in breadth of sympathy. He is far less subtle on this particular subject than Mr. Disraeli; but, on the other hand, he is far more clear and trenchant. He may not seem to take so comprehensive a view, but the view that he does take is much more definite, and has a far closer relation to the circumstances of the time and the movements of modern society. There is not so much affectation of philosophic candour in the addresses of the late, as in those of the present, Chancellor of the Exchequer; but while the former are inspired with the earnestness which makes a man the leader of a nation, we can trace in the latter nothing more than the astuteness of the party tactician.

#### PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.\*

WHY should Mr. Ansted date from the Athenæum Club, and style himself Professor? Does he, by the former, intend to impress his readers with the notion that he is a great "literary swell" and the companion of bishops, though he condescends to write upon such a very vulgar subject as geography? As for the "Professor," we presume he would agree on the high theological ground of "once in grace always in grace," and therefore the mere accident of his not holding a chair is no greater disqualification to him than to "Professor" Brown, the advertising tonsor of Fenchurch-street. The author should be above such peculiarities, for he has done good service in his day, though somewhat of the heaviest at the best of times, both as teacher and writer. In his latest work, he has brought together a huge mass of materials, and arranged them clearly—a great merit: "sint hic etiam sua premia laudi." We do not think so highly of physical geography in its present state as he does, and believe him to be wrong when he speaks of its "occupying a definite position as a science." It is only in a very low sense of the word that, like meteorology, it can be called a science at all; and certainly the big volume before us does not help us the least in that direction. There was far more of the scientific spirit in Mr. Somerville's volumes, and in some portions of Mr. Buckle's "History of Civilization," than in Mr. Ansted's more ambitious work. It is no doubt "very significant" that the Old World terminated pyramidally, "in the form of a huge hand stretching with open fingers towards the south;" what does it signify? What does that conformation imply? It is a curious fact, but it leads to no scientific conclusion. Then, again, it is singular that the great mountain chains of the Old World run from east to west, while in the New they run from north to south. What is the reason for such an arrangement, and what are the consequences? We ask in vain, at least of the "Professor."

Few matters in physical geography are of more importance to a seafaring people like ourselves than the great currents which traverse the ocean, the best known of them being the Gulf Stream. In a work that professes to be scientific we should expect to find not only an account of that curious phenomenon, but some explanation of its causes: a page is devoted to the first, and not a word to the second. We do not find so much as a hint that it is a secondary effect of the general movement of the warm surface-water of the tropics to the cold polar regions—a continual movement, the course of which is incessantly modified by the rotation of the earth, the direction of the winds, and other obstacles. On the subject of the tides, the work is equally defective. One would have expected to see the fact mentioned and explained—that there is no tide in the Mediterranean: although not many weeks ago a telegram about the insurrection in Candia, spoke of the tide's rising and drowning a number of insurgents, who had taken refuge in a cavern on the shore!

We might mention other things which have been either overlooked or left unexplained; thus we can find nothing about the curious "mud lumps" of the Mississippi, to which Mr. Thomassy has devoted a chapter in his "Practical Geology of Louisiana." They are hillocks of mud that make their appearance all of a sudden on or near the bar of that great river. Messrs. Humphreys and Abbot, in their "Report of the Physics and Hydraulics of the Mississippi," suppose them to be formed by the expansion of gases generated from the vegetable alluvia brought down by the stream and lodged at the mouth. Thomassy conjectures them to be the orifices of natural artesian springs. Whatever be their origin, they are easily destroyed by gunpowder, and leave behind them a deep cup-like depression, like the crater of a volcano. On this and other matters connected with the Mississippi, we would refer the Professor to a report presented to the Geographical Society of Paris, by M. Élisée Reclus, in 1863, and printed in the *Bulletin* for that year, page 126.

We do not care to discuss abstract points of philosophy with Mr. Ansted, because we suspect he does not know the drift of the arguments or the meaning of the words he employs. After expatiating on the perfection of the universe, he tells us that "an interfering hand is a mark of weakness in the original plan. If the structure be perfect, interference is not necessary." What does he mean by "perfect" and "interference"? Is the existence of evil a proof of this Anstedian perfection? Is he sure that the Planner of the universe did not reserve to himself that right of interference? Geology tells us of great catastrophes that have taken place in primeval times; can Mr. Ansted demonstrate that those convulsions of Nature, as we vaguely call them, were the necessary effect of natural causes; or does his knowledge enable

him to deny that the great Architect of the world did not interfere to prevent the change? Of this he knows no more than the lisping infant. He may theorize, but in a matter of such importance we need demonstration. The scriptural idea of any overruling Providence, always at hand to guide and direct, may be felt or may be a misconception; but on such a subject we must have something better than vague guesses. It may offend our religious prejudices to be taught to think of the Almighty Maker as one of the Epicurean gods who, having done his work in the countless rooms of past ages, sits down and complacently rubs his hands, quoting, it may be, the well-used words of Lucretius as he looks upon the poor struggling pigmies below; but if the doctrine be true, we must mend our creed. And in getting rid of Providence we get rid of a great deal more than the "Professor" imagines. We need not follow out this subject: we are not afraid of the truth, wherever it may lead, but we do fear such blind guides as the Professor.

We could point to many branches of physical geography on which the author has disappointed us, and in none more than in his nineteenth chapter, on what may be called zoological geography. The distribution of animals upon the earth's surface is one of the most interesting branches of study, and one that since Buffon's time has been the most neglected considering the vast additions made to our knowledge. Equally curious is the history of the changes that have taken place through the instrumentality of man. The lion, once hunted in Macedonia, is found there no longer. He still lingers in the caverns of the Atlas range, but the rifle is fast driving him into the Sahara. The beaver disappeared from our island in prehistoric times; the wolf only a few hundred years ago. Bears and wild deer have vanished from France within three centuries, together with the forests in which they used to find shelter. The chamois and ibex are becoming rarer every day in the Alps and the Pyrenees. The dodo was exterminated as soon as discovered, and the monster-bird of New Zealand must have perished not long before the discovery of the island. Macaulay tells us when the bustard disappeared from Salisbury Plain, and the wild cat from Cranbourne Chase. The fox would have disappeared long ago, had he not been preserved for the amusement of country gentlemen. The badger and the squirrel are becoming rarer every year, and many of our small birds have gone for ever. Whoever sees a kingfisher now? In our boyish days they might be seen near every stream. But if man displaces, he also replaces: the ox and the horse have taken possession of the plains abandoned by the aurochs, who were too savage to bend their necks to the yoke. Sheep and goats climb the steep slopes once the familiar haunts of the chamois. As kangaroos become rarer in Australia, the herds of sheep and cattle increase. The jaguar and cougar, retiring before civilization in the shape of fire-arms, permit countless herds of oxen and droves of wild horses to roam securely over the pampas of South America. Neither does man spare his own kindred: entire races have perished in the Western world during the 400 years that have elapsed since its discovery by Columbus. The Australian savage is fast disappearing, and the New Zealander seems condemned to follow him. Hitherto the Caucasian race has triumphed over all its rivals. There are some, like Alison, who think that the ultimate victory will rest with the Mongols or the Tartars!

It has been stated as a law—though not without great exceptions—that the diminishing and disappearing races are those characterized by their bulk, while the smaller races are growing more numerous. The shrew-mouse, the least of all mammals, the *Sorex pygmaeus* of Pallas, has made its appearance in Mecklenburg and Silesia within the last thirty years. The rat, apparently unknown to the ancients, entered Europe during the Middle Ages; but the common brown rat of our days is a recent successor to the original black rat, whom he has almost eaten off the face of the earth. This brown rat, so new as to be unknown to Linnaeus, appeared in Astrakhan in 1727, and only took three years (it is said) to reach England. They were apparently driven from their native home in the desert of Coman, by the earthquakes of that year in the country round the Caspian Sea. They came in large bodies, and, as they swim well, the wide rivers hardly delayed their advance. The actual date of their arrival in this country is doubtful: that they were common in 1750 is demonstrated by the romances and pamphlets of the day, in which they are styled "Hanoverian rats," and are gravely asserted to have come over in the ship that brought George I. to our shores. That is a mistake, but they made up for lost time under his successor. They were first noticed in France in 1750, and since then have made the tour of Europe. The rat is so small and so prolific that he can easily escape his enemy, man; but the larger beast must fly or succumb. The aurochs disappeared from Germany in 1755, when the last was killed near Jena. A few are reported as still existing in the Imperial forest of Białowicza, in Poland, but they are preserved as curiosities, otherwise they would have been extinct long since, like the wild cattle in Chillingham Park. The history of the Rytina Stelleri, a sort of marine sea-cow, reads like a romance. It was first described by the naturalist Steller in 1743, and in 1768 had entirely disappeared; and, strange to say, the only relic of it is a tooth preserved in the great museum of St. Petersburg.

The localization of genera, so much insisted upon by many naturalists, is far from being a universal law. A great number of carnivorous animals inhabit almost all the regions of the globe. The cat and the dog are cosmopolitan, and the same may be said of the rat (there are two European and one Asiatic species in Brazil), the squirrel, the stag, the tapir, &c. But, on the other hand,

\* Physical Geography. By Professor D. T. Ansted. London: Allen & Co.



there are whole families which form local creations, and are remarkably circumscribed. All the American monkeys have prehensile tails, and the marsupials are peculiar to Australia and the neighbouring islands. It is remarkable that this specialization of genera for each continent increases as we draw nearer the genus homo. Thus there are numerous instances among the insectivorous animals, but only one among the cheiropterous.

Zoological geography is still a very defective section of physical geography, although it is that in which there has been the most theorizing. This is owing to many causes—to the wide field it embraces, and the great range of studies it requires. It comprehends the whole history of our planet, and of all the beings and all the bodies found on its surface. For instance, carnivorous animals can only live when feebler races are plentiful enough to provide them with food; the latter are usually herbivorous, whose existence consequently implies that of numerous vegetables: thus the animal kingdom is dependent on the vegetable kingdom. But this, too, has its geography, for its innumerable species do not spring up indefinitely. The humblest grass and the tallest tree claim alike their special climate and soil. Thus, in its turn, the mineral kingdom comes to play its part in the unbroken chain of dependence. Before we can understand zoological geography, and reduce it to a science worthy of the name, we must examine the crust of the globe, as bequeathed to us by the convulsions of primeval times. In some such way as this, we hope to see physical geography reduced to a science; but merely to collect a mass of facts and sort them under several heads, may be convenient to the memory, but a very poor intellectual exercise. Mr. Ansted may say that these things did not form part of his plan; to which we might reply, that he must have formed a very indistinct idea of the subject on which he attempted to write, and has shown himself far from being a competent teacher.

#### GEORGE THE THIRD'S LETTERS TO LORD NORTH.\*

WE have nothing but praise for Mr. Donne's act of editorship. He has seen how letters such as these of George III. should be treated. Instead of simply printing them with each fact in doubt, each allusion unexplained, and leaving the general reader to find out their meaning, he has accompanied them by notes, which are always pertinent and sometimes pointed. He is afraid that the actual documents will be rather overlaid by the commentary, and that he may be accused of forgetting the golden rule that an editor should regard himself as the mere servant of his author. But this golden rule is too often misunderstood, and no distinction is made between the servant and the flunkey. The object of an editor should be to make his author clear. He must not shrink from doing this, even if his task leads him into apparent disrespect for his author, into apparent self-assertion. A work that needs editing almost invariably needs elucidating. Either the book is old, and its meaning has become obscure from the changes of language and the oblivion into which the great of its time have fallen. Or the book was written for learned men, and has to be explained to an unlearned public. Or it was written for the author himself and his friends, as in the case of diary or letters, and furnishes materials for history, but does not replace the work of history. We have had so many books of late with all these gaps unfilled, that we could pardon Mr. Donne for some diffuseness. Without fullness of annotation, these letters would have been dreary reading. A short, snappish sentence of wonder that any man could have had the face to harangue on some transitory question, would be mere tediousness to the reader without a note to tell him that the sneer was aimed at Burke. And though many other passages of like import explain themselves, the reader's eye might fail to notice them unless his attention was arrested by a judicious comment. That Mr. Donne's comments are, with the fewest possible exceptions, judicious, is not his least merit. His verdict on George III. is impartial. As he has been enabled to publish these letters by permission of the Queen, and has had special permission to dedicate his volumes to the Queen, he could hardly have been severe on the Queen's grandfather. Yet the admirers of George III. will complain that their favourite is not shown in a flattering light, and that Mr. Donne does not attempt to conceal the blemishes whose existence they have so strenuously denied. If this charge is made, it can easily be rebutted. Mr. Donne can reply, that in plotting against the heroic character of the King he has had his accomplices. And those accomplices are the King's letters.

The judgment formed by Mr. Donne, both upon the style of the letters and on the character of the writer as displayed in them, is the judgment of an editor who is not the slave of his author, but, in the highest constitutional sense, his servant or his minister. It was this that Lord North should have been to George himself. We admit that in such a case these letters would never have been written; yet, valuable as they are to us now, their loss would have been still more valuable. Had not Lord North yielded too easily to the King's peremptory entreaties, the history of the American War of Independence might have remained unwritten. It is idle to speculate on the result of England and the thirteen colonies having parted amicably, save that such speculations may show our desire to let bygones be bygones. We might, indeed, learn by the records of our attempt to subjugate the united colonies, what should be

our present treatment of the United States. Our late experience may make us smile at the thought of keeping a certain awe over the abandoned colonies by means of Canada and Nova Scotia. The tables have been turned with a vengeance. But it is nothing new to find each successive step of a struggle attended by confident predictions of the result of the next step. George III. too faithfully reflected the mind of England. We see him throughout these letters rejoicing at the majorities which were faithful to the worst measures, and which stifled reform or inquiry. He cannot be blamed for not being in advance of the country. He wished to be honest, and his conscience told him that he must resist the claims of America. He was king, and he wanted to govern. This no doubt is some excuse for him, but the excuse itself cuts away the ground on which the divine right of kings is rested. What safeguard can there be if the absolute ruler is no wiser than the mass of his subjects, and has not the same interests as they have to keep him from folly? The people have to pay the bill, and that is their final test of the need of a war of conquest. They have listened to one class of statesmen at the outset, and have felt that their cause is right, and must prevail. But when the taxes begin to press, the other side gains a hearing. Conscience and confidence are a little shaken. The ministers who counselled war when they thought it meant victory, view it in a different light when it means defeat. And, however general was the first enthusiasm, doubt and interest are sure to make themselves felt—sure to put its sincerity to the touch. Very different is the case with an absolute monarch. So long as he can find ministers willing to do his work, so long as soldiers and people are imbued with natural loyalty, so long as opposition is crushed or regarded as impiety, there is no hope of his yielding. A king need not be either ambitious or despotic to fall into this error. We do not think George III. longed for the glory of subjugating the deluded colonies, or loved to crush the spirit of freedom. Yet he certainly persuaded Lord North to execute his behests, and Lord North forfeited his friendship when he left his service. He kidnapped soldiers from the small German States to fight against his own subjects, and his letters are full of the most savage remarks on all who opposed his Government. The absurdity and indecency of the Opposition, encouraging contempt of the laws and of that subordination that alone can preserve liberty, of which they pretend to be the guardians; the antiquated Opposition point of moving for an account of pensions and salaries; are phrases picked out of the first few letters. But the King does not confine himself to mere general censure. Some of his remarks have a most personal application. Of Charles Fox he says—"that young man has so thoroughly cast off every principle of common honour and honesty that he must become as contemptible as he is odious." He tells Lord North to bring forward as much business as possible during Charles Fox's absence, "as real business is never so well considered as when the attention of the House is not taken up by noisy declamations." But his treatment of Chatham is still less excusable. Even that most memorable event, the last speech of Lord Chatham, which impresses the imagination as one of the grandest scenes in the whole of that long reign, is dismissed curtly as "the political exit of Lord Chatham." And, to crown all, the King writes a month later—"I am rather surprised the House of Commons have unanimously voted an address for a public funeral and a monument in Westminster Abbey for Lord Chatham; but I trust it is worded as a testimony of gratitude for his rousing the nation at the beginning of the last war, and his conduct whilst at that period he held the Seals of Secretary of State; or this compliment, if paid to his general conduct, is rather an offensive measure to me personally." What had Chatham done? He had made England. He had freed George III. from bondage, and let him feel himself really a king. And yet the offering of a public funeral, which was the gratitude of the country, was an offensive measure to the still more grateful Sovereign.

On many public questions, besides that of the American war, these letters give us glimpses of the King's wrong-headed fervour. When the Dissenters petition for a relaxation of the restrictions upon them, George III. writes that Lord North "ought to oppose the petition personally through every stage, which will gain you the applause of the Established Church and every real friend of the Constitution. . . . It is the duty of Ministers as much as possible to prevent any alterations in so essential a part of the Constitution as everything that relates to religion; and there is no shadow for this petition, as the Crown regularly grants a *noli prosequi* if any over-nice justice of peace encourages prosecutions." Of reporting debates he writes, "It is highly necessary that this strange and lawless method of publishing debates in the papers should be put a stop to; but is not the House of Lords, as a Court of Record, the best court to bring such miscreants before?" In the same spirit of instruction with regard to the laws of England, the King is sorry to find the Crown lawyers are not as well informed as himself about the criminality of attempting to assemble riotous meetings. Another time he is "sorry men should so far lose their reason, and let the violence of the times or fears actuate them, as to forget the utility of the Board of Trade." Had he consulted Gibbon he would have learnt that the historian, after being appointed one of the Commissioners of that Board, "enjoyed many days and weeks of repose without being called away from my library to my office." It is unfortunate that the Commissioners should have been the first to forget their own utility. But it was well that the King should think of it for them. It was well, too, that he should not be blinded by sham morality to the financial utility of the lottery. The idea of opposing it, he says, "seems rather extraordinary. Unless mankind could entirely be prevented from gaming, I am

\* The Correspondence of King George the Third with Lord North. From 1768 to 1783. Edited from the Originals at Windsor, with Introduction and Notes, by W. Bodham Donne. Two vols. London: Murray.



certain it is right for the public to avail itself of that vice rather than lay taxes on the necessities of life." Is it for the same reason that his Majesty declares it would be wrong not to give the Duke of Northumberland some assistance, if he requires some gold pills for the Middlesex election? If bribery cannot be put down, may it not be turned into the channels of public revenue, and the necessities of life be cheapened? Each elector might be taxed so much in the pound on the sum which he is likely to receive. We are gradually coming to the conclusion that certain vices must be recognised. Surely we may make them pay their footing.

This, however, is a digression for which we must hold George III. answerable. The style of his letters is certainly not an incentive to method and order. Let us give Mr. Donne a hearing:—

"The King's letters are strictly such as one man of business commonly writes to another. With very rare exceptions they are written in haste, and sometimes even with impetuosity. Many of them would shock Lindley Murray; in some of them Priscian's head is broken; in few of them is there a vestige of preparation, in none of them of elegance in expression. Louis XIV. wrote very indifferent grammar, and George III. wrote not much, if at all, better than his most Christian Majesty. In this respect indeed he was on a par with many of the nobility and gentry of the time, who may notwithstanding have composed faultless verses at Eton; and perhaps the royal style, rough and tumbling as it usually is, is not more unpalatable than the epistolary bombast of Lord Chatham, whom, were we to judge of him by his correspondence alone, we can hardly fail to tax with affectation, if not insincerity. There is in spite of their defects, no small amount of self-portraiture in these letters; and this, except by ceremonious readers of them, will scarcely be thought to lessen their value. They put before us a blunt, busy, positive, shrewd, but not very sagacious man; one well acquainted with public business—better versed in it indeed than many of his advisers; a restless inquisitive man, who chose to know how matters were being managed, and was not averse from interfering with them, though perchance they might have gone on better had he let alone the well or the ill in them. George III. loved not unprofitable servants either in his closet or his council-chamber. He bestirred himself, rising early, and, when work was to be done, sitting up late, and he looked that those about him should also bestir themselves, whether their functions were ceremonial or official, for show or for use. Punctual, even minute, in his mode of transacting business, as his fashion of dating his letters shows, he expected the same virtues in all who served him."

This last sentence alludes to the way in which the King minutes his letters. Almost every one hears some such heading as "2 min. pt. 9 a.m.," "46 min. pt. 3 p.m.," "55 min. pt. 2 p.m." The spelling is often faulty, and Mr. Donne follows up the King with many a remorseless "*sic*." We find such words as touch, adopt, alleviate, innovations, shadow, and cirrounds. To make amends for writing about "the blackest die," the King says, in another place, that "the dye is cast." His sentences are not always better than his words:—"I owe it grieves me to see men of birth wanting that which disgraces the meanest man, resolution." We spare our readers the infliction of a whole letter which Mr. Donne copies, but does not understand. We would gladly spare Mr. Donne himself the infliction of a parting word of censure, and we have kept it for the last that it might not mar the effect of our praise. There is neither table of contents nor index to the volumes, and their title is a misnomer. Two letters of Lord North's do not constitute a correspondence.

#### THE VEGETABLE WORLD.\*

M. FIGUIER, in his "World Before the Deluge," has already shown that he possesses the knack of treating a scientific subject in a popular manner. To do so successfully demands something more than clearness of style alone, for a style may be clear yet bald and uninviting. The happy gift required is the power of attracting the reader by inspiring him, at least temporarily, with an interest in the subject of study before him, and this gift M. Figuier in "The Vegetable World" again shows us he possesses in an eminent degree. The book offering, as it does, a profusely and elegantly illustrated compendium of botany, in the preparation of which the latest sources of botanical knowledge have been laid under contribution, supplies a want in our literature, and will probably obtain an extensive circulation. For these reasons we the more regret that much that is so excellent in design and execution, aided by a most liberal outlay in illustrations, should have its value lessened by the negligence and incompetence of those to whom the supervision of the work in its passage through the press has been intrusted. Thus we read in the text—"Fig. 273 represents a vertical section of a stigma of *Datura* fecundated and furrowed with pollen-tubes;" whilst under the cut itself we read, "Vertical section of the pollen-tube of *Datura*." Again, throughout the description of the transformation of the insoluble starch of the embryo into the soluble form of sugar, the extraordinary blunder is made of printing "*destrin*" for "*dextrin*," and the word occurs no less than three times. Such an error betokens the most inexcusable carelessness, or an amount of ignorance hardly conceivable.

The work consists of four parts. First, a description of the structure of the essential organs which pertain to vegetables, with

an explanation of their functions, or vegetable anatomy and physiology. Second, the classification of plants; a brief outline of the principles which govern the arrangement of plants into different groups, accompanied with sketches of the lives of the more eminent botanists, through whose labours in devising systems not less serviceable because superseded, the present classification has, step by step, been arrived at. Third, the natural families of plants. The editor informs us that he has in this section departed from the original, and adopted the system of the late Dr. Lindley, not merely because he preferred to give a view of the vegetable world according to the system of classification accepted wherever the English language is spoken, but also because he regards that system as the nearest approach to perfection which the world has yet seen; at the same time, whilst departing in this particular from the arrangement of M. Figuier, his ideas as to the general treatment of the subject, viz., to select the more important families, describe a plant as a type of the order, and notice the most prominent species belonging to the group, with their properties, have not been neglected. On the contrary, even the subjects which he had selected for special illustration have been adhered to. Fourth, the geographical distribution of plants on the surface of the globe. This portion consists mainly of extracts from the writings of Charles Martins, Humboldt, Cosson, and Dr. Hooker, but the fact by no means detracts from the value of the book as an elementary work, for the passages are judiciously selected, detail the impressions of eye-witnesses, and are more vigorous and graphic than any transposition or hash-up of the materials by a professional bookmaker could possibly be. No paraphrase, for example, would be likely to do justice to the following terse and poetical observations of Linnaeus on the geographical distribution of plants, from the prolegomena of his "*Flora Laponiae*":—"The dynasty of the palus reigns in the warm regions of the globe; the tropical zones are inhabited by whole races of trees and shrubs; a rich crown of plants surrounds the plains of Southern Europe; armies of green gramineae occupy Holland and Denmark; numerous tribes of mosses are cantoned in Sweden; but the brownish-coloured algae and the white and grey lichens alone vegetate in cold and frozen Lapland, the most remote habitable spot of earth—the last of the vegetables alone live on the confines of the earth."

The vegetation of each species of plant corresponds with a determinate interval on the scale of the thermometer. Alexander von Humboldt, on his return from his voyage to the equinoctial regions of America, was the first to point out that it is the predominance of certain forms of vegetation which chiefly gives to each country its peculiar physiognomy, and enables us to recognise it at sight. Forests of firs and pines recall at once the north or the high mountain ranges of Europe; oaks and beeches the temperate zone; the olive the south, and the palm intertropical regions. The Cape of Good Hope is the country of the heaths, and Mexico, perhaps more than any other region, the home of the orchids. Linnaeus, in 1753, was acquainted with 6,000 species of plants. Persoon, in 1807, knew of 26,000. In 1824, Stendel carried the number up to 50,000; and in 1844 to 95,000. The most recent works describe about 120,000 species, and Alphonse de Candolle thinks it may be inferred that the total number cannot be less than from 400,000 to 500,000. Of the 95,000 species of plants known in 1844, 80,000 were phanerogams, or cotyledonous plants, and 15,000 cryptogams, or acotyledons; whilst of the 80,000 cotyledonous 65,000 belonged to the dicotyledons, and 15,000 to the monocotyledons. The numerical proportion of the phanerogams to the cryptogams varies according to latitude. The number of cryptogams increase as we advance towards the poles; the number of phanerogams, on the contrary, increases as we approach the equator. In the frozen and temperate zones the cryptogamia are humble vegetables, which scarcely raise themselves above the surface of the soil; but, in the burning regions of the tropics, those elegant members of the group the arborescent ferns rise to the height of the loftiest palm-trees. All plants have their polar and their tropical limits. The cold prevents them from passing these limits towards the north, the heat from doing so towards the south. In proportion as we rise in the atmosphere the temperature decreases; and hence it happens that a high mountain under the equator may be clothed at its base in the rich vegetation of the tropics, while its summit is covered with eternal snow, and the space between is clothed on a limited scale with all the diversity of vegetation which the traveller meets with in a journey from the equator to the pole. Meleze and dwarf birches resist a cold of 40° below zero Fahr., while many of the palms, the orchids, and the tree ferns die when the thermometer descends to 50°. This temperature causes Alpine or northern plants subjected to it to fade and shrivel after a few days' exposure. Other plants again are at home in the midst of the burning sands of Africa with a temperature of from 128° to 147°. Barley, the cereal which has the furthest northern limits, begins to vegetate when the thermometer reaches 40°. In short, the influence of heat on vegetation is such that we can scarcely name a single species of plant which is truly cosmopolitan. Botany first acquired a scientific basis in England when, about the middle of the seventeenth century, the microscope was first applied to the study of the organs of plants and the spiral vessel was detected by Henshaw, and shortly afterwards the cellular tissues by Hooke. These discoveries were followed by the publication of two works on the Physiology of Plants by Mulpighi and Grew. They examined the various forms of cellular tissues and intercellular passages in their minutest details, and with an exactness which causes their works still to be recognised as the groundwork of all physiological botany. The real nature of the sexual

\* The Vegetable World, being a History of Plants, with their Botanical Descriptions and Peculiar Properties. By Louis Figuier, author of "The World Before the Deluge." Illustrated with 446 Engravings, and 24 full-page Illustrations, chiefly drawn from Nature, by M. Faguet. London: Chapman & Hall.



organs of plants was demonstrated by Grew, together with the important difference between seeds with one and those with two cotyledons. Clear and distinct ideas of the causes of vegetable phenomena were thus gradually developed and a solid foundation laid, on which the labours of succeeding botanists have erected the theories of vegetation subsisting at the present day. The credit of the first systematic attempt at the classification of the vegetable world belongs to the French botanist, Tournefort, Professor of Botany at the Jardin des Plantes, in the latter portion of the seventeenth century. Tournefort describes no less than 698 genera and 6,146 species, selecting the form of the corolla as the basis of his classification; and it is worthy of remark that most of the genera established by Tournefort subsist to the present day. To Ray, a contemporary of Tournefort, however, belongs the merit of having been the first to lay down and define the true principles on which a philosophic classification of plants should be founded in his "Historia Plantarum," published in 1686, a book so much in advance of the age that its merits are only now beginning to be fully appreciated. To the classification of Tournefort succeeded the well-known system of Linnæus, only now giving place to the more rational and philosophic natural system for which we are indebted to the labours of Bernard and Laurent, De Jussieu, Adanson, De Candolle, Robert Brown, and, though last not least, the late Dr. Lindley, who has greatly improved upon former systems of classification, by importing into the criteria a minute examination of the ovule and seed.

The portion of this work translated from the French of M. Figuier may be commended for its style, and has the further merit of having presented intact the freshness and life of the original. The following extract affords a fair specimen of the mode in which the translator has performed his part:—

"The design of the Creator of the world seems to have been to embellish and make beautiful all which was to be exposed to our eyes, while that which was to be hidden was left destitute of grace or beauty. Leaves suspended from their branches balance themselves gracefully in the breathing air; the stems, branches, and flowers are the ornaments of the landscape, and satisfy the eye with their beauty; but the root is without colours or brilliancy, and is usually of a dull uniform brown, and performs in obscurity functions as important as those of stem, branches, leaves, or flowers. Yet how vast the difference between the verdant top of a tree, which rises graceful and elegant into middle air—not to speak of the flower it bears—and the coarse mass of its roots, divided into tortuous branches without harmony, without symmetry, and forming a tangled, disordered mass. These organs, so little favoured in their appearance have, however, very important functions in the order of vegetable action.

"The general form of roots is conical, the thicker part being termed the *caudex*, or stock; the tender and delicate point of the cone, from its soft, yielding substance, the *spongiosa*; the threadlike filaments it throws out in all directions are the *febrilla*, which is somewhat inflated, and consists of a series of small cells, the ducts of which convey the food of the plant from the spongiolles to the caudex of the root. Besides this function, it is now pretty well established that the spongiolles possess the power of ejecting effete or deleterious matter, and on this property of plants, cultivators of the soil formed the system of rotation cropping; that which in course of time renders the soil unfit for one crop until it is renovated, being harmless, if not beneficial, to others."

#### NEW NOVELS.\*

UNTIL the appearance of Mr. Mason Jones's novel, we were under the impression that whatever their shortcomings in other respects might have been, prosy dulness was by no means one of the besetting sins of Irish university students. This notion Mr. Jones has, however, done his utmost to dispel. Such of his characters as are students of Trinity College, Dublin, present themselves to us under the most unfavourable circumstances: one produces sickly poetry that others may criticise them; another attempts smart talking about the elixir of life, and becomes insufferably tedious. A third gives his views upon such portions of domestic economy as relate to the counting of things sent to the wash, and the prevention of thieving in gyps. Individual opinion having thus had its swing, Mr. Jones rearranges his men in the chambers of some student, whose furniture he describes in glowing terms that an upholsterer would envy, and will have them talk the most miserable twaddle upon such exciting subjects as the choice of a profession, the sin of drunkenness, the tendency of ritualism, and the meaning of the divine call in students for orders. The plot which has to be worked out by such singularly unsatisfactory materials, has very little novelty or ingenuity to recommend it. It possesses that absolute essential in Irish stories—a very black villain, one Sir Bernard Carew, about whom there hangs a mystery never cleared up and explained, and in no way essential to the plot. Sir Bernard is in love with Miss Helen O'Neill, the niece of Sir Arthur O'Neill, and explains to Captain Flood, a villain in whose power he happens to be, that he means to carry off the young lady, and to force her into a marriage, of which Flood is to be one of the witnesses. Flood, however, objects to this arrangement, darkly hinting at a previous marriage of Sir Bernard, and certain forgeries which the Baronet had had the folly

to commit. Sir Bernard, late the same evening, finds on his lawn a pocket-book belonging to Flood, and, on opening it, discovers two of the documents which compromise him. These he burns in his own room; but, fearing that Flood may smell the burning leather, he hurries off to a neighbouring lime-kiln, and just as he has thrown in the book he observes beside him Flood himself, who had followed him to the spot. The owner of the book is thrown in after it, and Sir Bernard returns to his house. The next act of the baronet is to propose to Sir Arthur O'Neill for the hand of his niece; and as he has a rent-roll of £30,000 a year, he is at once accepted, and allowed permission to address the young lady. Before he has made any progress in his suit, Helen happens to overhear a conversation of two men in a boat who confide to one another the suspicions of each as to the forgeries and marriage of Sir Bernard and his murder of Flood. Why these confidences should be so opportunely exchanged does not transpire, but the lady is at all events determined to have nothing to do with her suspicious admirer. On her return home, Helen is obliged to start with her aunt, Lady O'Neill, for Dublin, a telegraph having arrived conveying the intelligence that Sir Arthur O'Neill's son was dying of fever in his chambers in Trinity College. On their arrival in Dublin, the ladies find Bob O'Neill under the care of his friend, Tom Butler, a very paragon of a student, who has nursed him during his illness. They take up their abode in the chambers, Tom acting as cook, and making himself generally useful. It is almost unnecessary to say that Tom falls in love with the heiress. The method of making himself agreeable, however, was rather odd; and we hope, for the sake of Irish ladies, that it is not the prevailing form of courtship in Trinity College. He takes her to see the college library, and delivers one of Mr. Mason Jones's orations upon literature and its labours. He relates the whole story of his life, with a full account of the potato famine; and in a kind of last dying speech and confession over Curran's tomb he declares his passion, and is accepted. During the progress of Tom's love affair his brother Mark Butler is being turned out of a farm which he held under Sir Bernard Carew, two or three lengthy orations upon the subject of tenant-right which he delivered to his landlord having failed to touch that person's heart. Tom goes on a visit to the castle of the O'Neills, hears of his brother's loss, and meets at dinner his rival Sir Bernard, who, when his eyes fell upon Tom, "scowled at him with an expression of diabolical hatred and rage," or "gnashed his teeth whilst he ate his walnuts." In spite of the baronet's rage, the love-affair runs on smoothly enough, the only difficulty being the choice of a profession for the fortunate suitor. Helen will not have him be a lawyer; whilst her brother thinks that "Parliament is the place for him—there he can astonish the Britons." And if that did not suit, he might obtain fame by writing the history of Ireland. The lovers had thus delightfully arranged everything, when Tom Butler is found by Sir Bernard Carew trespassing upon his lands. Sir Bernard orders him off, telling him that he had "sneaked into rich men's families . . . trying to steal the affections of ladies, trying to spoil the game of his superiors—the infernal son of a sawbones." A scuffle ensues, in which Sir Bernard is accidentally killed. Tom, who is induced to conceal the circumstances, goes off for a while to Italy. In the mean time the police have discovered a knife belonging to Mark beside the body, and they have learnt that he passed near the scene of the supposed murder on the day when it happened. Mark is tried for murder, and, almost at the last moment, Tom, Helen, and Bob O'Neill appear in court and explain everything. Tom is allowed to go scot free, everybody seeming to forget that manslaughter is a punishable offence. The narrative, of which we have given the outlines only, crops up at intervals throughout the three volumes, and is separated by long accounts of examinations, given with as much brilliancy as is to be found in any University calendar, details as to the cost of living, the exactions of laundresses, the peculiarities of Dubliners, the advantages of careful nursing, and the benefits to be derived from a large consumption of Burgundy. This useful information occasionally gives way to Mr. Mason Jones's orations upon everything, from the "sham court" of the Lord Lieutenant down to the mercenary nature of the legal profession. The orations may, however, be rather indulgently looked upon. Undelivered, they were of a nature to weigh upon the mind of the author, and this mode of letting them off had the additional advantage that it enabled the orator to manufacture his own applause as well as his speech. It would be endless work to point out the sins against good taste with which Mr. Mason Jones's book abounds, but we think such passages as that in which he speaks of "a judge who has been recently elevated to the bench whom no honest man in the city would admit inside his house;" or describes Higgins, who, by a change of name, became the Rev. Wilfred Augustus J. De Courcy, cannot be too severely censured.

"Landmarks of a Life" has throughout a mass of sickly sentiment and an inextricable confusion of people and events, which render the perusal of the two volumes a task of no ordinary difficulty. The heroine business in the novel appears to be divided between Mary Ainslie and her daughter Queenie. Mrs. Ainslie manages to excite the admiration of the Marquis of Longminster, who, when he saw "the vision of her entrancing beauty," cried out "Merciful heaven!" and "bestowed upon her an admiration so unguarded and unfeigned as to pain her sorely." She was determined, however, "to stem the tide of open homage, to crush the covert admiration that perplexed and shocked her," and consequently when the Marquis, "a tempter in the garb of greatness burning to slay in an hour of purity the truest of true wifely hearts," tells her, as he sees

\* Old Trinity. A Story of Real Life. By J. Mason Jones. Three vols. London: Bentley.

Landmarks of a Life. A Novel. By B. C. Austin. Two vols. London: Newby.

My Sister Dagmar. A Tale. By C. A. M. W. Author of "Fate of Sacrilege," "Uncle Clive," &c. Two vols. Same Publisher.



her home in a carriage, that "he has stayed temptation when much was in his power, and that he is mad with this great love," she thanks God, and believed it; but was greatly comforted when the carriage arrived at her own door. After such a repulse as this, we are not surprised to learn that the Marquis becomes an exile, and at the end of four-and-twenty years dies, leaving all his property to Mrs. Ainslie's children, his reason apparently being, because "I had laid my hand upon my heart, and taken a solemn oath that she should be mine. Her beauty and her truth were antagonistic to her position—the wife of my father's agent's son, the best of the Moubay name, fitter for rank, for queendom, and for me." Mrs. Ainslie, to the great relief of everybody, dies, and is well replaced by her daughter Queenie, who, although she was, from the early age of eight, given to the study of "Shakespeare," the *Spectator*, and Bacon's "Essays," yet remained uncertain as to whether twins died, as they were born, at the same time. For some unexplained reason Queenie becomes a governess, and having in that position made herself and everybody connected with her very unhappy, she abandons the occupation for a time, and utilizes her leisure in effecting the escape to Australia of one of her brothers, who is charged with murder. This young gentleman had met and quarrelled with a youth of his own age, a member of the continually revered Moubay family. Young Moubay, who, on the slightest possible provocation, rushes forward to push Vivian Ainslie over a precipice twenty fathoms deep, is dodged, after the Johnny Sands' fashion, and falls over himself. The author seems to wonder that Vivian Ainslie never stretches forth an arm to save his cousin, but seeing that the stretch to be of service must have extended to something like twenty fathoms, the indecision of the youth was not so much to be blamed after all. After so odd an adventure we are not surprised to learn that "an unmixed jury of Devon men, prejudiced for the name of Moubay, and jealous of the alien who had mingled base blood with the fair stock," found him guilty of manslaughter in his absence. Queenie whose conviction that "the upper and middle classes do not often amalgamate" prevents her from marrying, ultimately dies, in consequence of a cold caught in the wreck of a ship, which she is the last person to leave.

In addition to a plot, the unravelling of which, after two or three attempts, we had to give up as hopeless, "My Sister Dagmar" contains the history of a cat, the habits and peculiarities of beetles, a long description of a fight between the cat already mentioned and a dog, a great deal of information conveyed in form of question and answer upon ritualistic observances, and the meaning of the word Jesuit and innumerable disquisitions upon the richness of plum cake, the necessity of using physic only from qualified persons, and the nursing of babies. We have not been able to find in the book anything else which calls for attention beyond certain peculiarities of spelling, in which the author seems inclined to indulge, such as "yatching" for yachting (vol. i. p. 58).

#### THEOLOGICAL WORKS.\*

WHEN a layman takes to writing sermons, the odds are that they will be good. There is no necessity that he should write any. If he writes, it must be because he is impelled from within by something he has to say, not from without, by a mere professional obligation to say something. As his discourses are "unspoken," not produced at the rate of fifty or twice fifty in the year, all polished off on Saturday nights for the pulpit, the probability is that his subject will be well chosen, his arguments well weighed, his choice of words good, and his style finished. That there should be this difference between the clerical and the lay sermon is really no reflection on bishops, priests, and deacons. It is the inevitable result of the circumstances, it being oftentimes no less difficult to preach to order than to love to order, or to be witty to order. Another advantage the preacher of "unspoken sermons" enjoys is that he is restrained by no fear of emptying his pocket of pew-rents by teaching a doctrine which his congregation does not believe, but he does. If he be a worldling, and preaches for pelf, he may have to consider what doctrine will pay best in print; but that type of layman we presume to be something exceptional, the thought of which is dreadful to dwell on. Mr. Macdonald's "Unspoken Sermons" certainly do not belong to this class. The writer is too much in earnest for such an hypothesis; he feels deeply on his subject, and the question the threads of which he endeavours to unravel is evidently to him a life-problem. With the exception of a taint of Professor Maurice's peculiar heresy respecting a future state, these sermons may be said to be in doctrine sound, inspired by a deep reverence for Scripture, and an earnest faith in the divinity of our Lord and in His work of Redemption. Some of them are very striking, especially that on "Love thine Enemy," in which this duty is put in a point of view not unlike that of Bishop

Butler's celebrated sermon on the subject, but more forcibly. "The Heart with the Treasure" is another of these discourses, which it would be well worth the while of the Mammon-worshipper, who professes to be a Christian, to read. Their particular sin is, without doubt, exhibited here in its proper light. The sermon on "the Temptation in the Wilderness" is also very suggestive; and the peculiar difficulties connected with that event are boldly grappled with, and candidly considered. The Unpardonable Sin is a much-vexed question; and, if Mr. Macdonald fails in clearing up all its difficulties, none need wonder. But, after what Christ himself has said, that "if ye forgive not men their trespasses, neither will your Father forgive your trespasses," it is not improbable that it lies, partly at least, in an unforgiving state of mind. In this, and in deliberately and knowingly preaching and teaching in religion what you believe to be untrue, Mr. Macdonald thinks this sin chiefly consists. The discourse is well worth a careful reading, as, indeed, is the whole book.

The next volume on our list is also of sermons, written by an ably-wielded pen, but not "unspoken." We should say that, when spoken they were spoken well, and with much power of persuasion, being the vehicles in which the thoughts of a very popular "Country Parson" were conveyed to many listening hearers. To say that these were discourses preached in "a University City" by the celebrated "A. K. H. B." is in itself a sufficient commendation of the volume; Mr. Boyd's happy style, its simplicity, its pathos, his earnestness are all there; and more, there is something to think on though diluted in many words. Sermons like these cannot fail in being attractive reading to serious persons; they take human nature by the right hand and speak with sympathy to it. It is this sympathy, in fact, which has contributed so largely to their author's success. But there can be no doubt that the "Country Parson" is never so much at home or so successful in his grave moods as when he tells us of his "Recreations," or of his "Leisure Hours," or of "Autumn Holidays." The sparkling effervescence of his thoughts, which are the great charm of his writings, disappear when the pressure of gravity is put on them. Besides, it is a question if the "Country Parson" is not writing himself out too fast. The mind is a soil which will not produce thoughts at a faster rate, or in greater quantity, than Nature has fixed her bounds to; and when these limits are exceeded, the result, we know, is poverty and exhaustion. These limits have probably not been exceeded in these discourses; but there are indications whose warnings it would not be prudent to neglect. These "Sunday Afternoon Sermons" are not so forcible or so instructive as were "The Graver Thoughts of a Country Parson." Their style is, of course, always finished and elegant, but the matter and arguments are sometimes very commonplace. What a marked contrast, for instance, between Mr. Macdonald's notion of "Christian Love" and Mr. Boyd's in his sermon on that subject. In answer to the question—How can you love the "mean, unlovely, carping, uncertain, self-righteous, self-seeking, self-admiring"—How can you love him?—the former says:—

"That person with the evil thing cast out of him will be yet more the person, for he will be his real self. The thing that now makes you dislike him is separable from him, is therefore not he, makes himself so much less himself, for it is working death in him. Now he is in danger of ceasing to be a person at all. When he is clothed and in his right mind, he will be a person indeed. You could not then go on hating him. Begin to love him now, and help him into the loveliness which is his. Do not hate him although you can. The personality, I say, though clouded, besmeared, defiled with the wrong, lies deeper than the wrong; and, indeed, so far as the wrong has reached it, is by the wrong injured, yea, so far, it may be, destroyed."

It is thus that Christian love teaches the Christian to separate the sin from the man that sinneth, and love the man still in his worst unloveliness. But what says the preacher of the "Afternoon Sermons in a University City" as to the feelings we should entertain towards God's enemy and the Christian's enemy. After much good advice that we should make allowance for and forgive the weaknesses and little failings of others, when his opinion of "great sins" and great sinners has to be given, he says:—

"There are offences against God and man which cut off from our sympathy, which make us think of the Psalmist's words, 'Do not I hate them that hate thee.' I speak of the ordinary run of professing Christian people, not of the wolves and tigers of the race."

So the people we are to hate are to be found among "the ordinary run of professing Christian people!" If so, how intense should not our detestation of the "wolves and tigers" be? What a fearful world, bad as it is, this would be, if every good man consistently acted and hated in this way! But does God hate those that hate him? Assuredly, if Scripture tells truth, He does not; and, if not, what right has man to misunderstand the Psalmist and hate any man? How great the difference on this point between the spoken and the unspoken sermon!

Of the Rev. Dr. Peile's volume of sermons it is enough to say that they are "doctrinal and didactic," and if the latter word suggests the idea that they are dry reading, such undoubtedly is the fact, at least as regards the generality of readers. In doctrine they are certainly sound; and we are sure they must have been instructive when delivered in the pulpit, and are likely to be of interest in their present form to the parishioners of St. Paul's, Hampstead. But, in any other respect, they do not seem to be superior to thousands of discourses which bud, blossom, and die in this land of preachers within the short space of a week, but yet never appear in print.

\* *Εξῆς Ἀπρῶτα*. Unspoken Sermons. By George Macdonald, Author of "Within and Without," &c. London: Strahan.  
 Sunday Afternoons at the Parish Church of a University City. By the Author of the "Recreations of a Country Parson." London: Longmans.  
 Sermons: Doctrinal and Didactic, &c. By Thomas Williamson Peile, D.D., Incumbent of the New Parish of St. Paul, Hampstead, &c. London: Rivingtons.  
 Some Distinctive Peculiarities of each of the Four Evangelists. By the late Thomas Round, B.D., Rector of All Saints, Chichester, &c. London: Rivingtons.  
 The Treasure Book of Devotional Reading. Edited by Benjamin Orme, M.A. London: Strahan.  
 Godly Meditations upon the Most Holy Sacrament of the Lord's Supper. By Christopher Sutton, D.D., Late Prebend of Westminster, 1630. A New Edition. London: J. Parker & Co.



Mr. Round's volume on the peculiarities of the four Evangelists is a posthumous work, which, before his death, was left unfinished by its author, but was, in accordance with his dying request, afterwards completed and published by his brother. The subject was one Mr. Round had much at heart, and to which he had given much attention in his ministrations as rector of Colchester. The peculiarities of the Evangelists have been so much studied and written on by divines that much novelty can hardly be expected in a new work about them. But there is much original thought in this volume, and several interesting points as to the peculiarities of the Gospel writers are worked out with ability and clearness. The arrangement of the work is not all that could be desired, not such as most probably Mr. Round would have presented it in had he been spared; but notwithstanding it contains much instruction well put, and ought to be found useful to those who have time, or whose professional position requires them, to study the subject.

The last two works on our list are, in harmony with those we have noticed, akin to sermons, although not exactly of that form of religious discourse. The "Treasure Book of Devotional Reading," by Mr. Benjamin Orme, is chiefly a collection of quotations from old religious writers, each of whom "though dead yet speaketh;" and with these appear some living divines, such as, for instance, the Rev. Drs. McLeod and Guthrie. The idea of having for religious people selections of the best thoughts of the great religious minds both of the present and past is good; but when one looks into most books published with that object, it is not the strong and most suggestive thoughts of these minds that appear in largest quantity. Passages of a declamatory and elegant wordy style seem too much sought after by the compilers of such books. This is undoubtedly a mistake in this nineteenth century. "Meditation" and "Devotional Reading," are habits which it is highly desirable to encourage; but there should be something solid to meditate on. It should be remembered that it is not always easy to meditate in another man's groove. The act, if it be not real, is certain to be the shallowest thing imaginable. Hence it is, that drawing-room books of religious meditation are so seldom opened—left on the table, as it were, to give the house a good name. Mr. Orme's "Treasure Book" is nicely got up, and passages of nice and elegant diction abound in it; but when it is remembered how inexhaustible the treasure-house is on which he had to draw for his materials, and what abundant solid matter there is to be found in it, it is not too much to say that his book could have been made much better. Some of the best quotations are from old Tom Fuller, who never said a thing without saying it well; but he appears only four times. Hooker also only four, Fénelon once, Wesley once, Dr. South once; while Bishops Hall, Jeremy Taylor, and Richard Sibbes, occupy an undue prominence. Robertson, of Brighton, is quoted only three times. An even balance should have been maintained.

Of the last work on our list, there is little to be said. "Godly Meditations upon the Most Holy Sacrament of the Lord's Supper," was no doubt a book suited to the age in which it was first published (A.D. 1630); but its reproduction in this latter half of the nineteenth century can only have one meaning. It is another relic dug up from the past by the extreme Church party so severely rebuked for its exaggerations by the highest Church authorities, and now become ridiculous. To criticise it here would tend neither to convince them, nor to confirm the views of their opponents. The only tribunal by which both it and every other such essay can be best judged is the good common sense of the average Englishman.

#### THE MAGAZINES.

*Fraser* is what is generally called "heavy" this month; but it contains many sterling articles, full of thought and information. The first paper, entitled "The Land System of the Country a Reason for a Reform of Parliament," is by Mr. T. E. Cliffe Leslie. It advocates a thorough reform in the territorial laws of England, and attributes to their semi-feudal character at the present time the vast increase of pauperism, the overcrowding of large cities, and the degeneracy of the population, both in towns and rural districts. Without committing ourselves to all Mr. Leslie's views, we may say that he has produced an interesting and valuable essay, the main results of which are thus summed up:—"The principle of feudal descent, which is the root of the two monstrous anomalies of English jurisprudence—the divisions of law and equity, and of real and personal property law—is the root also of the artificial limitation of land; and at once to reform our jurisprudence, and to set land free from restrictions against national industry and life, we must strike at the root instead of lopping off branches one by one, as has hitherto been done by a territorial and half-feudal Legislature. Having done this, the remaining steps to facilitate the commercial transfer of land are obvious and easy, and it could be readily shown that history supplies the same argument in their favour which applies to the reforms already suggested. These steps are (in addition to some stated already)—first, the compulsory registration of all dealings with land in a registry open to the public at a trifling expense; secondly, a new Statute of Limitations, greatly shortening the period within which non-claim shall perfect the title of the present possessors, who might otherwise be injuriously affected by registration; and thirdly, the sale of all encumbered estates, or of enough to defray the incumbrances, with a parliamentary title to the purchasers." Mr. Leslie's article is followed by a "Fragment on the Reign of Elizabeth," from the posthumous papers of Mr. Buckle. The "fragment" is rather a collection of fragments, consisting of passages which appear to have been nearly finished for the press, of others in a more

unformed condition, and of extracts from the author's commonplace book—all put together by the present editor (who signs himself "H. T."), and occasionally supplied with a few wanting words and phrases, inserted between brackets. The notes from the commonplace book are not the least remarkable portions of the collection, since they evince the extraordinary range of reading and accuracy of reference which distinguished the deceased historian; but indeed the whole matter is deeply interesting, and renews the regret which all cultivated minds must have felt in the premature death of such a writer. Mr. Bonamy Price discourses of "Banks and Banking," and contends for "free banking based on security lodged for every note issued," in which arrangement he is unable to see any of those dangers which the system is sometimes supposed to entail. The article on "Penance and Absolution" is very singular, and contains some curious extracts from a Roman Catholic official work on cases of conscience, intended for the guidance of the priesthood, and showing the mechanical and formal way in which such matters are managed, and the terrible palterings with truth and honesty to which they lead. "The Purpose and the President of the United States" is written with a strong feeling against Mr. Johnson, whose impeachment is demanded. "British Merchant Seamen," by a Commander R. N., is a good summary, based on official and other information, of the abuses existing in our mercantile marine; and in "Sunshine at the Land's End" we have a very agreeable paper on one of the most interesting of English counties. The only fiction in the number is the new serial story of "The Marstons."

*Macmillan* opens with an article on "The Cretan Insurrection," by a Resident in Crete, giving an account of the course of events in that island, from the heroic struggle of 1821-30 down to the outbreak of the present revolt. The summary will be found useful by those who desire to understand the antecedents of a question which may possibly, before it is settled, set Europe in a flame. It is written in a spirit of warm sympathy with the Cretans, and of strong reprobation of Turkish brutality and bad faith. "A Cheap Tour near Home" is a lively, gossiping paper, descriptive of a trip made by the writer in certain parts of Somersetshire and of Normandy. Mrs. Isa Craig Knox contributes a rather Wordsworthian poem, called "On the Hills." Recruiting for the army, and our system of national defence, are subjects discussed in the next article, in which several suggestions are made for an improved organization of our army, militia, and volunteer force. "The State of Ireland" is an essay by Mr. T. E. Cliffe Leslie, attributing the misery of the sister island to the vicious state of land tenure in a large part of the country, and abounding in curious details derived from a great variety of sources. "A Few Words on 'E. V. B.' and Female Artists" is a short critical paper, signed "F. T. P.," and is therefore, we suppose, the production of Mr. Francis Turner Palgrave. An eulogistic paper on the late Mr. Alexander Smith, written by a friendly hand, concludes the number, which also contains instalments of Mr. Henry Kingsley's "Silcote of Silcotes" and Mrs. Norton's "Old Sir Douglas," together with two poems (besides the one already mentioned), of which there is but little to be said.

The *Cornhill* calls the attention of modern readers to "The Old English Chronicle," whose quaint histories are rightly commended for the vivid and direct impression they convey of the life of the middle ages. The "Reminiscences of an English Cadet in the Austrian Service" are continued, and are amusing, though they do not present any matter for remark. Mr. Samuel Lawrence, in a paper on "Our Old Pictures," strongly condemns the practice of cleaning and "restoring" the great works of art of former days, which he says results in permanent injury, and in place of which he recommends simple rubbing with bread at certain intervals of time. "Spain and the Spaniards" gives a most lamentable picture of the race, who are described as debauched, ignorant, brutal, and uncivilized, and as wholly wanting in the spirit of Christianity, notwithstanding their religious professions. "The Village on the Cliff" is completed; further chapters of "The Claverings" are given; a new story is commenced, called "A Week in a French Country House;" and Mr. G. A. Simcox contributes a poem on "Orpheus," which appears to be a weak imitation of Mr. Swinburne.

After proceeding with Lady G. Fullerton's romance, "A Stormy Life, or Queen Margaret's Journal," the *Month* enters on a discussion of the Bishop of Orleans' recent pamphlet denouncing modern liberalism, of which, of course, it highly approves. "Rhoda, a Devonshire Eclogue," is a rather dull poem. The series of articles on "English Premiers" brings us to the close of Charles James Fox's life. Then follows a paper, apparently written by an architect, on "The Column of Trajan," which is full of interest in the comments it makes on Roman art in the declining days of the Empire. "Catholic Questions for the New Session" concentrates in a few pages the demands for further concessions to their body which the Romanists of Great Britain are agreed in making, and is therefore not without value even in the eyes of Protestants. Perhaps, however, the most interesting article in the number is that entitled, "Ancor-Viat, a New Giant City," describing, on the authority of a M. Perrin, some marvellous ruins discovered by that gentleman in Eastern Asia. The writer says:—"If any would-be discoverer of ancient monuments is envious of the laurels of Mr. Layard and other celebrities of the same class, let him at once set out by the Overland Route, and make his way as fast as he can to Ancor-Viat. Few people have yet heard of it, but if what is said of it be true, it must be simply the most stupendous collection of magnificent monuments in the world. If the traveller in Central America, who, like Mr. Stephens, quits the beaten tracks and plunges into the depths of vast forests, is amazed at the ruins of Copan, Palenque, Uxmal, and Chichen, with their huge truncated pyramids, palaces, corridors, and sculptured bas-reliefs, he would, it seems, be still more surprised if he extended his researches to the Empire of Annam, and advancing towards the utmost boundary of Cambodia, where it skirts Thibet, he came, mounted on an elephant, to the gigantic temples and forests of marble pillars which mark the site of which we speak. It was thus that a French officer in the service of the King of Siam recently visited the spot; and the account he has



given of it may be found in the *Revue de l'Architecture*, and is in great part reproduced in the *Revue Contemporaine* of December 1866."

Mr. John Morley, the new editor of the *Fortnightly Review*, contributes to the February number of that periodical the first part of an essay on Edmund Burke, which is excellently written, and promises to be very interesting, though of course some of the opinions contained in it are open to dispute. The writer's estimate of Burke's genius, and of the effect it had on the political thought and liberal progress of this country, is very high, and he claims for him the credit of having taught the "profound lesson, that in politics we are concerned, not with barren rights, but with duties, not with abstract truth, but with a shifting expediency." Mr. Morley asks, "What more indisputable law, what more important principle, has ever been contributed to the stock of political ideas?" It should be recollected, however, that long before Burke's time this had been an accepted principle—in fact, the great leading principle—of English politics; and that the danger with Englishmen always has been, and is, an under-rating of abstract right, and a somewhat servile and mechanical devotion to the practical. Captain Sherard Osborn contributes an article on the composition of the Admiralty, in which he demands many reforms; and Mr. A. Hayward reviews Lady Herbert's "Impressions of Spain," and makes some remarks on the state of that debased and priest-ridden land. Mr. P. G. Hamerton describes "A Canoe Voyage" in France, in a very picturesque manner; and Lord Amberley continues from the December number of the *Review* his articles on "The Church of England as a Religious Body," and requires, in theology, as in other matters, the most entire liberty for all opinions. Chapters VI., VII., and VIII. of "The White Rose" are given; and Mr. H. D. Seymour (who, by the bye, now publishes a complete retraction of his charges against Mr. Bright) forecasts "The Prospects of the Session."

We were under the impression that the reading public had had enough of the late war in Germany. Magazine writers seem, however, to consider it a fruitful mine yet to be largely worked, and the subject appears to be one likely to attain dimensions rivalling even those of that interminable German controversy, the Slesvig-Holstein succession. *Temple Bar* for this month has two of these articles: one devoted to Austria and Hungary, the other to the last Prussian campaign. The former of these, Mr. Ercy's paper, "From Vienna to Pesth," contains a very pleasant description of society in Vienna, and gives us the result of what the author saw in his rambles among the Hungarians. The other paper, "Is he a Spy?" embodies some of the experiences of a special correspondent with the Prussian army during its occupation of Deutchdorf, when the writer was almost worshipped by the country people, who regarded him as an Austrian spy, and worried by the Prussian soldiery, who could not make out what he was. "With Joe Manton in Missouri" is a very agreeable paper, giving an account of some capital sport among the American teal, snipe, plover, and curlew. "Gup," by Florence Marryat, is a sensibly written and agreeable article upon India and Indian society in the present day. In addition to the serial, "Lady Adelaide's Oath," there are four other stories in this number, the best of which undoubtedly is "Maurice Craven's Madness," by the author of "The Travelling Post-office," in *Mugby Junction*. Mr. Charles Clarke's "Old Tale with a New End" is a pleasantly written account of a schoolboy who, falling in love with a young lady at a distribution of prizes, goes to a hunt breakfast at her father's house that he may see her, and undergoes unheard-of sufferings in his attempt to follow the hounds. Unless *Temple Bar* can secure better poetry than the weak and silly lines it has upon the November meteors, it had better stick to prose.

The present number of *Belgravia* is an improvement upon last month's, and above the average of the four numbers which have appeared. In addition to Miss Braddon's serial, there are four or five very readable articles. Amongst these we may mention a memoir of the late Sulpice Paul Chevalier (Gavarni), the John Leech of the Paris *Charivari*. A short but interesting treatise on "The Basilisk," by Dr. Scoffern, is followed by "Sackville-street, Dublin," by George Augustus Sala. Mr. Sala has in some of his later writings taken a pleasure in abusing his own style, with a view, possibly, to blunting the edge of harsh criticism, and in the present article he indulges in a pitiless self-lashing. In one short page he designates himself "a moth fluttering round truth's candle," a "lover of the zig-zag and tortuous," a "miserably incompetent man," a "shivering shade," and a "cattiff." These are enough at a time, surely. We are disposed to agree with Mr. Sala when he says that "never ran a brook or whirled the sails of a mill" so fast as his tongue; but we doubtfully re-echo his question, "where are the thoughts these words should encircle?" We wish, too, that Mr. Sala would not coin words so liberally, and talk of "diagnosed" or "funerary roll." Notwithstanding these drawbacks, however, Mr. Sala's facile style is nearly always pleasant reading, and the present paper forms no exception to the rule. "Rachel's Folly" is a very sensational tale, in which there is a marriage without love, and death without reason. Of the poetry there is, as usual, a liberal supply. Mr. Astley H. Baldwin contributes a pleasant little poem, entitled "The Four Suits," and a discreetly anonymous writer a marvellous production, "On Brighton Pier."

Messrs. Hogg's *Belgravia* contains a fair collection of readable articles.

*London Society*, in its sketches of the English Bench and Bar, devotes an article to Lord Westbury and the late Lord Justice Knight Bruce, which, whatever its deficiencies in other respects may be, presents the reader with a very fair selection from the sarcasms of one judge and the humorous judgments of the other. It is a pity, however, that Lord Westbury should be attributed sayings which have nothing but impudence and coarseness to recommend them, and to the expression of which the ex-Chancellor could never have stooped. When we are told that Sir R. Bethel, whilst at the Bar, on hearing the Vice-Chancellor say he would turn a case over in his mind, desired his junior to note "that his Honour said he would turn it over in what he is pleased to call his mind," we have forcibly brought to our recollection a dozen other forms, in which the same story is related. This stands poorly by the

side of the reply with which Sir Richard once met a troublesome question put to him by a judge:—"Before I answer the question, may I venture to entreat your lordship to reconsider it, for I am sure upon consideration you will perceive that it involves a self-evident absurdity;" or when, in replying to a speech of Mr. Rolt's, he said:—"But, my lord, as the paths of error are numerous and devious, my learned friend has another argument to which I will now advert." The judgments of Sir James Knight Bruce in the *Agapemone* case and with reference to the disputes between a litigant attorney and his wife, are happy specimens of the Lord Justice's humour. It is to be regretted, however, that the writer of the sketch omitted the judgment in the case of Burgess's sauce, which is perhaps one of the funniest to be found in the Law Reports. The woodcut portraits which accompany the sketch are very poor productions. The other articles in the Magazine are of the usual light and gossiping character.

In the *Victoria Magazine*, the most interesting article is a translation of Madame Dora d'Istria's "Women of the Latin and Germanic Races," which presents matter for thought.

The *Argosy* carries the history of Robert Falconer to its fifteenth chapter. "A Drive with a Dublin Carman" has little calling for notice except its liberal use of Hibernianisms. The lines, "Youth and Maidenhood," strike us as being superior to what we generally meet with in this Magazine.

*Good Words* contains some readable articles of a geographical and topographical character—one on Iceland, one on "The Highlanders of France," and one on "Tin-mining in Cornwall, and its Traditions." Mr. Glaisher furnishes a paper on "The Atmosphere and the Clouds," and Mr. William Gilbert one on "The English Demoniac"—that is to say, on those cases of insane violence and crime, coming on in paroxysms, which the sufferers often attribute to diabolical possession.

*Nature and Art* proceeds with its articles on "Holbein in Germany," illustrated with fac-similes of old plates, and contains some other readable papers, and the usual engravings and chromolithographs.

The *Art Journal* publishes, as its steel engravings for the month, "James II. receiving news of the Landing of the Prince of Orange," from the painting by Ward, "The Eft," from a picture by H. Le Jeune, and one of the illustrations to "Elaine"—that showing Lancelot relating his adventures. In the criticism on Doré's designs, by the way, the writer speaks of the fifth plate representing a summer evening, when it is manifest, not only from the poem, but from the character of the light in the design itself, that the time is early morning. The Belgian painters selected for woodcut specimens are F. de Braekeleer, C. Baugniet, and H. Bourée; and the subjects of Mr. and Mrs. S. C. Hall's reminiscences are James and Horace Smith.

We have also received the *People's Magazine*, the *Leisure Hour*, the *Sunday at Home*, the *Sunday Magazine*, the *Family Friend*, the *Cottager and Artisan*, the *Floral World*, the *Chessplayer's Magazine*, the *Journal of the Institute of Actuaries*, *Christian Society*, the *British Controversialist*, the *Evangelical Magazine and Missionary Chronicle*, and the *Colonial Church Chronicle*, *Missionary Journal*, and *Foreign Ecclesiastical Reporter*.

#### LITERARY GOSSIP.

AMERICA has lost a writer of some distinction, and of great liveliness and versatility, in Mr. N. P. Willis, who died in the latter part of January, at the age of sixty. He was a native of Portland, in the State of Maine, and began to make himself known in the literary world about the year 1827, when he was barely of age. His productions for some time appeared chiefly in Magazines, with several of which he was editorially connected; and, being afterwards attached to the American legation at Paris, and travelling a good deal in France, Italy, Greece, and Turkey, he contributed to the *New York Mirror* a series of papers under the heading of "Pencilings by the Way," which were republished in London in 1835, and met with great success. He resided for two years in England, where he married his first wife, but subsequently returned to America. In 1852, a pulmonary complaint obliged him to make a voyage to the West Indies, and this resulted in another book of travels; but his most popular works, in addition to the "Pencilings," were his "Dashes at Life with a Free Pencil" (1848), "People I have Met, or Pictures of Society" (1850), and "Hurry-Graphs, or Sketches of Scenery, Celebrities, and Society, taken from Life" (1851). He also wrote some plays and poems. During several years he was connected with the *Home Journal*, a New York weekly periodical devoted to general literature; and this, combined with confirmed ill-health, kept him for a long while excluded from the world. He was not among the best of American authors; but he has amused many thousands of readers, and his death requires a passing notice.

A well-known friend and patron of the wits and poets of the last generation—Mr. Henry Crabb Robinson—died on Tuesday at his residence in Russell-square, in the ninety-second year of his age. A notice of him in the *Express* says:—"He was the intimate friend, and not unfrequently the Mæcenas, of some of the most remarkable English authors and artists. To the poet-painter, Blake, he was especially kind, and the value of Blake's productions was early recognised by him. In Gilchrist's 'Life of Blake,' recently published, will be found many anecdotes supplied to the author from the well-stored memory of Mr. Robinson. To Goethe he was known intimately as a friend and correspondent. Some of the happiest sayings of Lamb were preserved by his veteran companion. It was Robinson who endeavoured, though without success, to bring about an intimacy between Wordsworth and Blake, and the result of his attempt is among the most curious of the anecdotes told of the latter. In more recent times, Mr. Robinson was known to a very large and cultivated circle in London, by whom his pleasant recollections, his fund of good temper, and his extensive knowledge of men and things, were greatly esteemed."

The *Edinburgh Courier* records the death of Dr. Scoresby Jackson, a nephew of the celebrated Arctic voyager, whose life he wrote. He



was the author of several medical works, including one on "Climate," and another on "Materia Medica."

Mr. John Stuart Mill was inaugurated as Rector of St. Andrew's University on the 1st inst. He delivered a long and interesting address, which was very well received; but, as we have devoted a separate article to the consideration of what he then delivered, we need not in this place enlarge upon the subject. The address has since been published in an octavo volume by the Messrs. Longmans.

A public meeting, attended by a large number of Scotch nobility and gentlemen of influence, was held in Queen-street Hall, Edinburgh, last Saturday, for the purpose of memorializing her Majesty's Government and petitioning both Houses of Parliament in support of increased endowment to the University of Edinburgh. The chair was occupied by the Duke of Buccleuch, and resolutions in accordance with the objects of the meeting were adopted. It appeared to be unanimously agreed that the grant of £10,000 per annum made by Parliament to the four Scotch Universities in 1858 has been proved to be inadequate; that Scotland ought not to receive a smaller sum than Ireland, as now is the case; and that, on the present footing, the chairs at the University of Edinburgh will cease to be objects of ambition to eminent men in literature, philosophy, and science.

An Anglo-Saxon class has been formed at University College.

A movement, says the *Manchester Guardian*, is in vigorous progress for the extension of Owen's College, Manchester. It is proposed to raise from £100,000 to £150,000 for this object, and, at an influential meeting held at the Town Hall, subscriptions amounting to about £25,000 were announced.

According to the *France*, the new French press laws will result in increased liberties for printers and publishers. The printers of newspapers appear to consider that they stand very much in need of some amelioration of their condition. They have met, and drawn up a petition, which they intend to present to the Senate. "In this document," says the *Liberté*, "they reduce their pretensions to the extreme minimum, and, instead of demanding impunity in all cases, simply ask not to be put out of the pale of the common law; not to be treated more rigorously than assassins and robbers; and not to be deprived of the benefit of extenuating circumstances. They solicit a cessation of their pecuniary responsibility when the offence has been committed by solvent and resident authors and editors. Lastly, they ask to be responsible only in default of writers, arising either from their desire to remain unknown, or from their not offering sufficient security for the payment of the fines incurred." It would appear that these desires will be met by the new law, which, it is stated, will simply require printers and publishers to make a declaration of their place of residence and qualifications. It is furthermore believed that the newspaper stamp will be reduced to three centimes.

Besides Gustav Freytag, several other eminent literary men are candidates for election to the North German Parliament. Amongst these we notice Gottfried Kinkel and Professor Mommsen, the historian of Rome.

The friends and admirers of Leopold von Ranke propose to celebrate, on the 20th of February, the fiftieth anniversary of the historian's receiving the honour of a doctor's degree, which took place at the early age of twenty.

The Austrian Government, says a correspondent of the *Daily News*, have prohibited the sale of, and ordered the police to seize, a new work which has appeared under the title of "Twelve Champions of Revolution," containing the biographies of Robert Blum, Karl Blind, Mazzini, Count Cavour, Louis Blanc, and others.

"The *Siècle's* subscription for a statue of Voltaire to be erected in a public place in Paris," says the *Daily News*, "does not appear to be thwarted by authority. On the contrary, the adhesion of several pre-fectoral journals in the provinces is evidence that the proposal, if not quite favourably viewed, is at least strongly winked at. One, M. Costel, the mayor of Saint Vaast, La Hongue, near Havre (and all mayors are now Government nominees), sends a franc to the subscription on behalf of himself and his son—half a franc being the maximum receivable—and at the same time expresses a hope that the statue may be high enough to throw its shadow, not only over all France, but the entire world."

Mr. T. R. Bartlett, the American bibliographer, has published a catalogue of six thousand and seventy-three books and pamphlets relating to the great civil war.

Mr. Washington Moon's "Elijah" is advertised by Messrs. Hatchard & Co. as being in the third edition. It has undergone revision by the author; so much so, that scarcely a dozen stanzas remain as originally published.

A Greek publicist, with the grand-sounding name of Marino Papadopoulos Vreto, has just been nominated a chevalier of the Legion of Honour.

The King of Sweden is said to have written a memoir on Military Reform, and to have dedicated it to the Emperor of the French.

The new novel called "The Clives of Burcot" is the production of a Miss Hannah Smith, of Wellington, Shropshire, daughter of a printer in that town. She has contributed for some years to *All the Year Round*, and is the authoress of "The Travelling Post-office" in "Mugby Junction," where she appears as Hesba Stretton.

The Early English Text Society is about to publish "The English Statutes of English Guilds in 1389 A.D., with an Appendix of Translated Statutes, and an Introduction by Toulmin Smith, Esq."

A new political Magazine is to appear to-day, called the *St. Stephen's*, a *Chronicle of Politics*, &c. On the 1st of March will appear the *Methodist Quarterly*, a review of matters interesting to the various sections of the Methodist body.

Professor Goldwin Smith delivered the second of his lectures on William Pitt, on Monday evening, at Manchester. This was the final lecture of the series.

The Rev. Dr. Robert Lowell, brother of Professor J. R. Lowell, and author of "The New Priest," has been elected to the Professorship of English Literature in Racine College, Wisconsin.

According to the *Round Table*, Mr. Swinburne has written a "Hymn of Praise" for Italy.

A subscription is being got up to buy an annuity for Mr. Thomas Cooper, the author of "The Purgatory of Suicides," who is sixty-two years of age, and in bad health.

Messrs. RIVINGTONS' latest list of works in preparation comprises—"Sermons on Practical Subjects," by G. Collyer Harris, Prebendary of Exeter, author of "Lessons from St. Peter's Life"; "Letters to an Inquirer on various Theological Questions, with Notes on Coleridge's Confession of an Inquiring Spirit," by T. Rawson Birks, Incumbent of Holy Trinity, Cambridge; "Arithmetic for the Use of Schools," with a numerous collection of examples, by R. D. Beasley; "Letters by Miss Frances Rolleston," writer of "Mazzaroth," &c., edited by Caroline Dent; "Sermons," by W. Aldwin Soames, formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, late Prebendary of St. Paul's; &c.

Messrs. SMITH, ELDER, & Co. will shortly publish a work entitled "Turkey and the Crimean War," by Rear-Admiral Sir Adolphus Slade; "The Life and Speeches of Lord Plunket," edited by the Hon. David Plunket, with a preface by Lord Brougham, and a portrait, 2 vols.; "Sir Charles Wood's Administration of Indian Affairs, from 1859 to 1866," by Algernon West, Deputy-Director of Indian Military Funds, and lately Private Secretary to Sir Charles Wood; "A Manual of Marine Insurance," by Manley Hopkins, author of "A Handbook of Average"; &c.

Messrs. CHARLES GRIFFIN & Co. announce a new novel entitled "Dalmeny, or the Laird's Secret," by Jane H. Jamieson, author of "Lost and Found," 1 vol.; a new edition of "Boswell's Life of Dr. Samuel Johnson," forming one of their five-shilling volumes; &c.

Messrs. JACKSON, WALFORD, & HODDER will publish in a few days an "Ecclesiastical History, from the Opening of the Long Parliament to the Death of Oliver Cromwell," by John Stoughton, 2 vols.

Messrs. BLACKWOOD & SONS are about to issue an illustrated edition of the novels of George Eliot, in sixpenny numbers, to be published on the 1st of each month. The series will commence on the 1st of March with "Adam Bede."

Messrs. BLACKIE & SON will shortly publish an "English Dictionary, Etymological, Pronouncing, and Explanatory, for the use of Schools," by John Ogilvie, LL.D., editor of the "Imperial" and the "Student's" Dictionaries. They have also in the press, a "Digest of Nautical Terms, or Naval Terms and Phrases, old and new, registered and explained," compiled, during service in every rank of the Royal Navy, by the late Admiral Henry Smyth, and edited by Vice-Admiral Sir Edward Belcher, C.B.

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT announce for appearance in February—"Life in a French Chateau," by Hubert E. H. Jerningham, 1 vol. with illustration; "Sybil's Second Love," a novel, by Miss Kavanagh, author of "Nathalie"; "A Trip to the Tropics," by the Marquis of Lorne, 1 vol. with illustrations; "A Lady's Glimpse of the late War in Bohemia," by Miss Eden, 1 vol. with illustrations; "Off the Line," by Lady Charles Thynne, 2 vols.; and "Maidenhood," by Mrs. Sara Anna Marsh, author of "Chronicles of Dartmoor," 3 vols.

We hear from Constantinople that three new Turkish works have lately been published in that city. One is a volume on General History, called *تاریخ عمومی* (*Tarikh-i Umumi*); the other is a geography, entitled *اوصولی جغرافیه* (*Usuli Jagrafia*), and the third is called

"Periz." The appearance of such works is a proof that science and learning are not at a stand-still, as some suppose, even in the East.

"Entre Nous," by M. Gustave Droz, is the title of a "gossiping" novel lately published by HETZEL & Co.

#### LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Annandale: a Story. 18mo., 1s.  
 Birks (T. R.), Victory of Divine Goodness. Cr. 8vo., 4s. 6d.  
 Black's Guide to Paris. Fcap., 6d.  
 Chambers (G. F.), Descriptive Astronomy. 8vo., 21s.  
 Charley (W. T.), Handy Book of Law of Cabs and Omnibuses. 12mo., 1s.  
 Clark (Rev. J.), The Church in Relation to Dissent. Cr. 8vo., 5s.  
 Copland (S.), Agriculture, Ancient and Modern. 2 vols. Royal 8vo., £2. 5s.  
 Cruden's Concordance. Edited by Rev. C. S. Carey. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 Dalmeny; or, The Laird's Secret. By J. H. Jamieson. Fcap., 5s.  
 De Brett's Illustrated Peerage, 1867. Cr. 8vo., 7s.  
 ———— Baronetage, 1867. Cr. 8vo., 7s.  
 ———— Peerage and Baronetage in one Volume. Cr. 8vo., 15s.  
 Dod's Parliamentary Companion, 1867. 18mo., 4s. 6d.  
 Episodes of Insect Life. Edited by Rev. J. G. Wood. 8vo., 21s.  
 Green (S.), Biblical and Theological Dictionary. New edit. Fcap., 2s.  
 Grey (H.), Armstrong Magazine. Cr. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 Hennessy (W. M.), Chronicle Scotorum. Royal 8vo., 10s.  
 Hayes (J. J.), The Open Polar Sea. 8vo., 14s.  
 Homeopathic Medical Directory of Great Britain, 1867. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 Hull (Rev. E. L.), Sermons. 3rd edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.  
 Irish Church Directory, 1867. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 James (Mrs. E.), Muriel; or, Social Fetters. Cr. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 ———— (J. H.), Handy Book of Law of Salvage. 12mo., 5s.  
 Jebb (R. C.), Catenum Classicorum.—Sophocles' Electra. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 Jerningham (H. E.), Life in a French Chateau. Cr. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 Laurel (The) and the Lyre. Edited by A. A. Watts. Fcap., 6s.  
 Le Froy (Col.), Hand Book for Field Service. 4th edit. 18mo., 7s. 6d.  
 Macfarlane (Rev. J.), The Night Lamp. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 Macleod (Rev. N.), Reminiscences of a Highland Parish. Cr. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 Mill (J. S.), Inaugural Address at St. Andrews. 8vo., 5s.  
 Mission Life. Edited by Rev. J. J. Halcombe. Vol. I. 8vo., 5s.  
 Moore (G.), On some Diseases of the Nose, Throat, &c. 8vo., 2s. 6d.  
 Norton (E.), National Finance and Currency. 2nd edit. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.  
 Olive (Mrs.), Village Annals. 18mo., 1s.  
 Oxford University Calendar, 1867. 12mo., 4s.  
 Rankin (W. J. M.), Manual of Civil Engineering. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 10s.  
 Rivers (T.), Miniature Fruit Garden. 14th edit. Fcap., 3s.  
 Roberts (Rev. A.), The Life and Work of St. Paul. Cr. 8vo., 5s.  
 Ruddock (E. H.), Homeopathic Vade-Mecum. 2nd edit. Cr. 8vo., 5s.  
 Shephard (Rev. H.), Ishmael's Spear. Cr. 8vo., 6s.  
 Shakespeare's King Richard II. With Notes by Rev. H. G. Robinson. Fcap., 2s.  
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 Sir Cyrus of Stonycleft. By Mrs. Wood. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.  
 Soames (W. A.), Sermons. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 Speight (T.), Brought to Light. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.  
 Smith (Barnard), Examination Papers in Arithmetic, with Answers. 18mo., 1s. 6d.  
 Stoughton (J.), Ecclesiastical History of England. 3 vols. 8vo., £1. 5s.  
 Transactions of the Obstetrical Society of London. Vol. VIII. 8vo., 15s.  
 Trapp's Commentary on the Old and New Testament. Vol. I. Royal 8vo., 15s.  
 Trimen (R.), Catalogue of South African Butterflies. 8vo., 19s.  
 Ville (G.), High Farming without Manure. 2nd edit. Fcap., 1s.



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